

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

JULY • 1943

VOLUME 4 • NUMBER 3

**THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF
THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY
OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA**

Public Personnel Review

*The quarterly journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada, devoted to the
improvement of standards and practices in public
personnel administration.*

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PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW is published quarterly by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada. It deals with administrative and technical problems in the field of public personnel administration. Offices of publication, 1009 Sloan Street, Crawfordsville, Indiana. Editorial and Executive offices: 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois. United States and foreign subscription rates: \$5.00 a year in advance; \$2.50 to members; single copies, \$1.50. Correspondence regarding manuscripts, reviews, abstracts, and advertising should be addressed to the Editor. Entered as second-class matter April 4, 1940, at the Post Office at Crawfordsville, Indiana, under the act of March 3rd, 1879.

Address: Editor, PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW
1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
RETIREMENT PLANS IN RELATION TO PUBLIC PERSONNEL	
ADMINISTRATION	<i>A. A. Weinberg</i> 153
EMPLOYMENT STABILIZATION IN THE DETROIT CITY SERVICE .	<i>Charles A. Meyer</i> 165
THE USE OF SERVICE RATINGS FOR EMPLOYEE GUIDANCE . .	<i>John G. Watkins</i> 168
MILITARY PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: THE UNITED	
STATES MARINE CORPS	<i>Major Joseph W. Hawthorne</i> 173
CIVILIAN EMPLOYEE TRAINING AT THE KANSAS CITY	
QUARTERMASTER DEPOT	<i>Schuyler Hoslett</i> 179
A METHOD FOR SEGREGATING TEST ITEMS AS TO	
DISCRIMINATORY POWER	<i>John C. Kidneigh</i> 184
REGIONAL PERSONNEL OFFICE RELATIONSHIPS	<i>James O. Yarger</i> 190
COURT DECISIONS	195
BOOK REVIEWS	203
ARTICLE ABSTRACTS	211



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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

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Retirement Plans in Relation to Public Personnel Administration

A. A. WEINBERG

THIS article is concerned with the provision of an adequate plan for the retirement of public employees as it relates to an effective personnel program. Classification and salary plans, service ratings, and health, safety and employee training programs are a few of the numerous aspects of an effective personnel program which seeks, in essence, to bring about the most efficient utilization of personnel in public administration. A plan for providing for the aged and disabled public employee is still another aspect, and one that has become increasingly important in recent years. The implications of an adequate retirement plan are too often ignored, however, either because they are not sufficiently understood or because the advocates of a formal retirement program, generally the employees themselves, are too intent upon obtaining the benefits of a plan to take the time to present the advantages of the plan in its proper relation to public personnel administration and the obligations which such a plan entails.

THE "WHY" OF A RETIREMENT PLAN

THE arguments generally advanced in favor of the adoption of a retirement plan may be broadly summarized as follows:

1. The plan serves to eliminate from the active payroll superannuated or disabled employees who are unable to perform their work with reasonable efficiency, and are, in fact, hidden pensioners. Thus a retirement

plan serves as a device for removing inefficient and disabled employees.

2. A retirement plan aids recruitment and serves to retain in the service experienced employees by making the service more attractive to those persons who might otherwise seek employment in private industry or in another governmental agency.

3. It helps to keep open the avenues of advancement by eliminating aged employees, and thus serves to improve employee morale. The fact that the employees have reasonable assurance that they are provided for in their old age or in the event of disability tends to bring about better morale. Thus the efficiency of the service is increased and economy in administration results.

4. It provides, at least to some extent, a safeguard against insecurity in old age and in the event of disability, in an economical manner. In this way a retirement plan gives emphasis to social considerations. The social aspects of retirement have assumed increasing importance in recent years due to the increasing awareness that impoverished old age is a social problem. The fact that public employees are not covered under the federal social security program is a strong influence against such resistance as still exists among public officials and legislative bodies to the adoption of retirement provisions.

Recent pronouncements by public officials and legislative developments in various states demonstrate that many public officials are still unaware of the full implications of retirement provisions and the cost

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considerations involved in the establishment of a retirement plan. There still exists a tendency to ignore the experience in those jurisdictions wherein retirement plans were not carefully prepared and did not provide for adequate financing. Officials and employee groups are inclined to disregard the advice of those students of pensions who are aware of the dire results which inevitably follow in the wake of any plan that is created without careful estimate of the burdens assumed. In the interest of expediency and to meet pressing demands of employee groups there is often a disposition to ignore the long-term view by approving provisions for financing the plan on a basis of cost estimates for the early years of operation only. The fact is overlooked that such estimates are disproportionately low and do not reflect the ultimate financial needs for the operation of the benefit provisions of the plan.

Too often public officials yield to the requests of certain groups of employees for a plan which is either improperly set up to meet the needs of the occupational group which it is intended to benefit, or contains rates of contribution or conditions for retirement that are not in keeping with the requirements of the group of employees to be covered. This may arise from the fact that administrators are not usually fully informed regarding the subject of retirement planning. Even today there exist many systems requiring contributions of one or two per cent of salary on the part of the employees and providing for retirement upon completion of a fixed period of service without regard to age. Yet it is a well established fact that any modern plan of retirement benefits of the contributory form should have a rate of contribution substantially greater than this if it is to meet the financial needs of the plan. A contribution rate of one per cent or two per cent of salary can be construed only as a "token" contribution, and certainly does not represent the employee's share of the cost of the benefits provided by a comprehensive plan.

While retirement planning has reached a

high level of development as the result of research and educational study in recent years, much more remains to be accomplished to bring about the establishment of plans that are well balanced and equitable in their provisions, as well as being financed in accordance with accepted principles.

RESPONSIBILITY OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATORS

WITH these aspects of the retirement problem clearly in mind, it becomes the obligation of the personnel administrator to provide objectivity in the preparation and planning of retirement provisions. Although personnel administrators are generally in the most favorable position to assume leadership in that phase of public administration, it is regrettable to note their relative lack of interest in the subject. Perhaps the complexities of cost considerations and financing methods are a partial explanation of the condition.

There is available a considerable body of published data reflecting the experience of various municipalities with retirement plans containing information on the types of retirement provisions in force, the methods of financing, and other important phases of the problem.¹ The actuary, specializing in the technical preparation of retirement plans, is oftentimes looked to for such information, but this individual may occasionally be swayed by the wishes of the employee group which he represents, or by the desires of the jurisdictional officials. It is desirable, therefore, that the personnel administrator, acquaint himself as fully as possible with all phases of the subject, and thus help in formulating the retirement plan and in organizing the retirement system along proper lines and accepted standards.

COSTS VERSUS SAVINGS

WHEN a specific retirement proposal is reviewed in terms of its cost to the employer, the estimate of the additional bur-

¹ See the short bibliography at the end of this article for some suggested sources of additional information.

den of these provisions should be balanced against the benefits which the employer would realize from the operation of the plan. These benefits will be real and substantial in amount. The creation of a systematic plan for solving the problem of superannuation of employees and for meeting the hazards of disability and death among the employees will definitely result in certain savings which can be measured and computed.

These benefits to the employer consist of reductions in payrolls derived from the retirement of those aged and disabled employees who, although often well toward the top of the salary range for their positions, are not performing efficiently, coupled with their replacement by younger and more capable men at lower levels in the salary range. Frequently, the duties of the retired employees are absorbed by other employees, thus increasing the benefits to the employer from the operation of the plan.

The advantages of a retirement plan to the employer are frequently overlooked or disregarded, due mainly to the fact that the demands for some form of coverage usually emanate from the employees, and also because the benefit provisions are directly aimed at providing certain monetary benefits to those employees. A retirement plan is still regarded by many officials solely as a philanthropic and benevolent gesture on the part of the employer, rather than as a systematic method for bringing about economy and efficiency in personnel administration.

It is generally assumed that the "why" of a retirement plan is thoroughly understood and accepted and that its advantages are self-evident. Yet, regardless of how complete its provisions may be, a retirement plan will fail in its objectives if its financial implications are inadequate or are incompletely understood. On the other hand, even with proper financial provision a plan may be unsatisfactory from the viewpoint of the employees in properly meeting their needs, or from the viewpoint of the government as an employer.

The well-designed retirement plan offers

advantages to both the employees and employer. These advantages are realized only if the arguments or objectives summarized above are implemented by specific provisions that will carry out those objectives to their fullest measure. A well-balanced retirement plan, it is generally agreed, will aid the interest of the government as an enlightened employer and will bring about definite improvement in administration.

SOME SHORTCOMINGS OF EXISTING PLANS

WHILE a retirement plan is undertaken primarily to meet conditions related to superannuated employees, many plans provide for the allowance of retirement benefits at ages considerably below the usual age of superannuation. Still other plans ignore the immediate retirement problem by emphasizing benefits for the younger employees and make no provision for those employees who have rendered a long period of service and have reached, or are nearing, the age of superannuation. The superannuation problem is not solved satisfactorily unless the aged employees who are in service at the time the plan is inaugurated are enabled under the plan to retire immediately upon or shortly after its inception.

Some plans include financial benefits only for those employees who retire on account of age, and make no provision for disability prior to attainment of superannuation. Such plans cannot give full effect to one of their objectives, namely, to serve as a housecleaning device. The suggestion is often made that partially disabled employees be assigned to lighter jobs which require less skill and less physical exertion, but the fact remains that such adjustment is not always possible, because of the limited number of such positions. Moreover, the hazard of keeping these men in service at any kind of job is still present. Thus, a retirement plan without provision for disability is incomplete, for it thereby falls short of serving in full the purposes for which it is established.

The most undesirable feature of many existing plans is that which permits em-

ployees to retire after completion of a certain period of service, regardless of age. This type of provision is found most commonly in plans for policemen and firemen. Such a feature, aside from being extremely costly, violates one of the basic principles of sound retirement planning, because it ignores the fact that the fundamental purpose of the retirement plan is to provide for superannuation. The retirement of employees while they are still comparatively young is most undesirable, except in cases of disability, and is in keeping neither with the social ends to be served, nor with sound public administration. A retirement allowance should be viewed primarily as a provision for old age rather than as a reward for services rendered.

Another objectionable feature found in many plans is the requirement that an employee complete a fixed period of service and attain a certain specified age as a condition for retirement. The undesirable result of such a provision is that persons who enter service at a late age cannot qualify for a superannuation allowance because they are unable to complete the required length of service. This is particularly true if a compulsory retirement provision is included. Thus, if a plan requires the completion of 20 years of service before an employee becomes eligible for retirement, and also stipulates that employees be compulsorily retired at age 65, those employees who entered service over the age of 45 years could not qualify for benefits.

THE tendency toward setting up a separate retirement system for each small group of employees is one to be discouraged, for the experience of small systems has been on the whole unsatisfactory. There are many handicaps facing a small system, due chiefly to the limited number of participants involved and the relatively heavy overhead cost of maintaining the retirement organization. The efforts that are usually expended in bringing about the establishment of a separate retirement system for a small group

of employees could well be directed, for example, towards the establishment of a state-wide plan for employees of small municipalities. Plans of this type are in operation in many states at the present time.

These state-wide systems have had a successful period of experience and represent the practical solution of the problem of retirement protection for employees of small communities. In these systems all municipalities within the state are included as participants on behalf of their employees, either on an optional or compulsory basis, depending upon the policy and legal conditions within the particular state. By pooling the risks of a large number of different units, and by establishing a central administration, an organization is created that can operate economically and effectively.

IMPORTANCE OF A FULL BENEFIT SCHEDULE

WHILE a retirement plan is concerned primarily with retirement superannuation benefits, as implied in the foregoing description of such a plan, the trend in recent years has been towards the inclusion of collateral benefits to cover the hazards of disability and death. These collateral benefits have been found essential for the purpose of fulfilling in the greatest possible measure the objectives of a retirement plan.

Collateral benefits usually consist of provisions for both occupational and non-occupational disability, for benefits to designated beneficiaries, for payments to minor children or aged parents, and for a separation benefit whereby contributions are refunded to participants upon their separation from the service of the employer. In recent years an added feature has been conceived whereby a provision is made for the emergency financial needs of employees in the form of temporary loans at a specified rate of interest, repayable to the system on an installment basis concurrently with regular contributions to the retirement system.

The change in the general pattern of retirement plans may be attributed to two

causes: the general ascendancy of the contributory principle, and its widespread acceptance by employees and employers; and the increasing social consciousness among our population. The modern retirement plan, therefore, can be regarded as an employee welfare or benefit plan in which provision is made for the major hazards of old age and disability that face every employee. The title of such a plan should be more inclusive than that of a "pension," the term frequently used, because it constitutes a plan of retirement, disability and dependents' provisions.

The lag in incorporating such desirable features in retirement plans for public employees may be due to some extent to the traditional distinction which exists between public administration and private enterprise. In industry, wherein the competitive influence is ever present, the profit incentive is usually the compelling force behind the adoption of such welfare measures as will bring about increased and more efficient production at lower cost, and make for high morale and a satisfied personnel. Public administration, on the other hand, does not have competition and the profit motive as its driving forces. This probably explains in large part the lack of progress in welfare programs for public employees and the failure until relatively recent years to recognize the urgent need for such programs as an integral part of public personnel administration.

TYPICAL RETIREMENT BENEFIT PROVISIONS

AN ANALYTICAL comparison of benefit provisions in retirement plans from a number of public jurisdictions reveals no one standard pattern. Local conditions, plus differences in the concept of what the retirement plan should accomplish, account for many of the variations that such a comparison discloses. However, there is a sufficient commonality of content to permit enumeration of the principal points of coverage, which fall under the following general heads:

1. Superannuation Retirement Allowance.
2. Amount of Retirement Allowance.
3. Dependents' Provisions.
4. Ordinary Death Benefit.
5. Accidental Death Benefit.
6. Disability Provisions.
7. Separation Benefit.

Each of these points will be discussed briefly hereafter in an effort to point out some of the important factors to be kept in mind when such provisions are under consideration.

Superannuation retirement allowance. The basic provision of a retirement plan is, of course, the superannuation retirement allowance. The determination of the age of retirement on account of superannuation is governed largely by the type of occupational group of employees to be covered by the retirement plan, together with the employment conditions surrounding such group. For example, it is a well-established fact that the physical efficiency of employees in certain occupations, such as the police and fire services, becomes impaired at an earlier age than that of office personnel. It is also a well-established fact that women workers generally reach a state of old-age inefficiency at a somewhat earlier age than do men. At the same time, mortality statistics reveal that women, on the average, have a longer period of life expectancy than men. This is reflected in the fact that annuity values predicated on these statistics show that the cost of annuities for women at the age of 60 years is between ten and fifteen per cent higher than for men of the same age.

The time fixed for retirement under the plan should reflect an age which would permit employees who are taken in at later ages in life to receive a fairly reasonable allowance as participants in the retirement plan. The age factor, however, should be first applied to establish a minimum age at which employees could retire voluntarily, thus giving flexibility to the plan, and secondly, to fix the age at which the majority of em-

ployees would normally be expected to attain a state of superannuation. This latter age could be designated as the age for compulsory retirement.

In this connection it should be pointed out that a retirement plan will not fully meet the needs of the employer if it does not provide for compulsory retirement at a specified age. Without such a provision the plan cannot satisfactorily fulfill its objective of systematically eliminating aged employees who have reached the end of their productive years. In fixing the age of compulsory retirement, however, caution must be exercised in fixing the age at a sufficiently high level to avoid a situation whereby employees possessing unusual talents and ability which have proved of value to the employer will not be retired at too early an age. This danger can be avoided by allowing an extension beyond the compulsory retirement age at the option of the employer.

Amount of Retirement Allowance. The three most common methods for computing a retirement allowance are (1) the money-purchase plan; (2) a percentage of final or average salary per year of service; and (3) a combination of both whereby the money-purchase plan is applied to the employee's accumulated contributions and the percentage of salary plan is used for the employer's contributions.

The money-purchase plan is favored by actuaries because of its simplicity of application, because it is possible under that plan to compute the liabilities of the system for retirement allowances without having to make many assumptions. Under this plan the retirement allowance consists of the actuarial equivalent, according to the annuity tables in use by the system, of the total reserve accumulation by the employee, created from contributions made by the employee and by the employer, plus interest accretions. Its one distinct weakness lies in the fact that the retirement allowance, being predicated upon contributions made at various rates of earnings during the employee's period of service, appears small and

somewhat out of proportion to his final salary when related to that salary. Administratively, such a plan is not the most practicable since it results in some dissatisfaction among the participants.

The second method is frequently criticized because of the possibility of influencing the size of the allowance in any one case by making salary adjustments immediately preceding retirement, either upward or downward.

The third method represents an attempt to combine the features of methods (1) and (2) and eliminates the objection to those two methods, at least in part. The chief advantage of methods (2) and (3) is the establishment of a basis which creates a more reasonable relation between the retirement allowance and the employee's final salary. In that respect, these latter methods are superior to the money-purchase plan, and are more satisfactory from an administrative standpoint.

Dependents' Provisions. Provisions for dependents have been adopted in recent years to give emphasis to the economic and social security aspects for the employed population. These provisions may consist of a separate allowance for a beneficiary in addition to the superannuation retirement allowance, or they may represent a benefit derived from a part of the employee's equity in his superannuation retirement allowance. When the latter form of provision is in force, the total cost of the retirement plan is not disturbed and the obligation of the employer remains the same, regardless of the form of division of the employee's equity. Such latter provision is of particular value in a plan having a large proportion of female employees as participants. It has its disadvantages, however, since it tends to depress the superannuation benefit for the employee.

Ordinary Death Benefit. A death benefit may be provided for a designated beneficiary payable upon the death of the employee while in service. The payment may consist of a lump-sum benefit as a proportion of the employee's salary according to length

of service. The size of the benefit is controlled largely by the financial ability of the employer to meet the over-all cost of the retirement plan and the conditions surrounding the occupational group for which the plan is to be formulated. If the financial ability of the employees and the employer will permit, a separate annuity might be provided from contributions made by employees and employer in addition to the regular contributions for superannuation retirement annuity purposes.

Accidental Death Benefit. The accidental death benefit is payable in cases of the death of the employee resulting from the performance of duty. The benefit usually bears a fairly reasonable relation to the employee's final salary, consisting of a percentage of salary, say fifty per cent, payable during the lifetime of the widow, and is subject to termination upon remarriage. In the event there is no widow, and minor children survive the employee, the benefit is payable to the minor children. If no minor children are living, but dependent parents survive, the benefit is payable to the parents. Amounts received under State Workmen's Compensation laws are generally applied as an offset to the prescribed death benefit.

Disability Provisions. Unlike the death benefits, a disability provision is not primarily influenced by social considerations and is usually found essential as an aid in effective public personnel administration. These provisions serve to improve the character of the service by eliminating employees who become mentally or physically incapacitated prior to their attainment of the minimum age prescribed for superannuation retirement. They constitute one of the most important features of the modern retirement plan for public employees. The provision, as the term implies, consists of payments made to an employee during any period of incapacity for performance of duty due to some physical or mental condition. In determining the employee's right to the disability benefit the prime consideration is the ability of the employee to perform the

specific duties of his position, rather than his fitness for other types of employment in the service or under another employer at an equal or lesser rate of compensation.

It is clear that a benefit on account of occupational disability is desirable not only from the standpoint of good public administration but for humane reasons. From the very nature of the hazard it is obvious that no probationary period of employment should be prescribed as a qualification for the benefit. The two common methods in force for the payment of occupational disability benefit are: (1) a benefit of a certain percentage of salary of from say fifty to seventy-five per cent, the workmen's compensation payable under State laws being supplemented up to that limit; or (2) an allowance without regard to any payment of workmen's compensation, subject to a limitation of from fifty to seventy-five per cent of salary. While workmen's compensation laws provide for indemnity payments on account of occupational disability, the amounts prescribed consist of fixed sums without regard to an employee's salary. This results in a striking disparity in the case of employees who are in the middle or upper salary brackets. The modern retirement plan therefore aims to provide a supplementary benefit in order to bring the total income to an employee during disability to a level which bears a more reasonable relation to the employee's normal rate of income.

While benefit payments on account of occupational disability can be fairly well controlled, provisions for non-occupational disability require more careful administration and call for certain important safeguards for adequate control over those payments. The benefit on account of non-occupational disability is made more conservative in relation to salary, and ranges from twenty-five to fifty per cent of salary. Employees should be required to complete a certain period of service before becoming eligible to participate in that benefit. However, this minimum period should not

be in excess of five years. The payment of the benefit should also be limited as to time, and should be made for a certain proportion of the employee's length of service, such as one quarter to one half the employee's length of service. Statutory controls, together with certain administrative policies, can insure a proper and effective administration of this provision.

As to the financing of the disability provisions, the employer should defray the entire cost of the occupational disability benefit, while the non-occupational disability benefit should be shared by the employer and employees on an equal basis.

Separation Benefit. A contributory plan should provide for the payment of a refund of contributions, with or without interest, when the participant leaves the service of the employer before attaining the age of eligibility for superannuation retirement. Of vital concern, particularly at a time like the present, when interest rates are at unprecedented low levels, is the question whether the return of employee contributions should include interest. From the practical standpoint there would appear to be some objection to the payment of interest to the employees, but in view of the fact that the greater proportion of withdrawals occurs during the earlier years of employment, any saving in interest would at best be relatively small. The advantages of withholding interest would therefore be of minor consequence in actual dollars, although appealing in theory. Whatever tangible saving might be achieved in this respect would be counterbalanced by the deleterious effect upon the personnel.

FINANCING A RETIREMENT PLAN

ONCE the benefit provisions of the plan are decided upon, and the conditions for the allowance of the various types of benefits are established, the method of financing must be formulated to meet the cost of the provisions of the plan. The problem of financing the provisions exists at the outset of the plan and should be considered

when the plan is devised and the provisions are drafted.

Contrary to the impression held by many individuals, there exists no magic method for meeting pension costs, nor is there a special formula for providing for these costs. The obligations under a retirement plan are definite and accruing, and follow a fixed and immutable law. The cost of a retirement plan must be met regardless of the form in which it is designed. The following excerpt from a report issued by the National Industrial Conference Board several years ago constitutes a clear and definite expression of that point:

Too great emphasis cannot be placed upon the importance of sound and adequate financing for the permanence and satisfactory administration of the plan, to prevent disillusionment by a steadily rising pension cost. It should be emphasized, also, that there is no mathematical device or magic method by which the essential cost of a pension plan can be reduced. Employers should be skeptical of any proposal involving a secret formula alleged to be a sure means of reducing pension cost. As has been pointed out, cost depends on benefits plus administration expense minus interest, and this rule holds invariably under all methods of financing a pension plan.

During the early years of the plan the number of employees qualifying for retirement allowances generally appears very small in comparison with the total number of participants under the plan. This condition often gives a false idea of the actual and eventual costs of the plan. As additional employees retire and the bulk of those previously retired continue to draw their annuities, the total payments rise steadily and in some cases very rapidly until the annual outlay for the different benefits provided by the plan becomes very substantial in amount. The maximum burden under a retirement plan is usually reached when the number of annuitants added to the roll each year is equal to the number previously retired who died during the year. In the average municipal service, this state of equilibrium is usually attained, assuming normal conditions, after a period of about 40 years of operation.

THE real financial obligation under a retirement plan arises, not at the time the benefits become payable, but accrues continually over the period of the employee's service. Provisions, therefore, should be made in advance for meeting the future costs under the plan by a process known as "funding." The use of that term implies that reserves are being accumulated in advance to meet accruing liabilities for future retirement allowances. A retirement plan which provides for the accumulation of reserves as service is being rendered by employees is referred to as an "actuarially funded plan."

In determining the necessary reserve accumulations, several factors are taken into account, namely [1] *Turnover in employment.* (Many employees will not continue in service until the normal age fixed for retirement.) [2] *Mortality among the employees.* (Adjustment of costs can be made on account of those employees who die before retirement.) [3] *Mortality among annuitants.* (It is necessary to provide adequate reserves according to a standard annuity table for the payment of annuities during the expected average future lifetime of the retired employees.) [4] *Sex of the employees.* (It is necessary to consider the fact that women live longer than men and require higher reserves.) [5] *The marital status of employees.* (A certain proportion of the employees, which rises with advancing age, are unmarried at death.)

As the foregoing factors indicate, the cost of retirement provisions is governed by a very definite formula. That cost represents nothing more than the requirement for benefit payments and administration expense less interest earnings on invested assets. Administration expense is a minor factor in cost, constituting less than five per cent of the total cost consideration.

THE PROBLEM OF MIGRATORY EMPLOYEES

WHILE a staff retirement plan is designed primarily to meet certain specific problems in public personnel ad-

ministration and is established as an adjunct to a sound and progressive over-all personnel program, the increasing emphasis in recent years on social conditions affecting the working population has focused attention on one phase of retirement plans which may be regarded as an inherent weakness in their basic structure. This is the problem of migratory employees. While a retirement plan through its continued operation effects a reduction in turnover and brings about greater stability in employment, there is always present in the most stable enterprise a certain amount of turnover which may be considered normal. This factor of turnover in relation to adequate retirement planning is receiving the serious study of all students concerned with the broad retirement problem.

As has already been pointed out, the contributory form of plan usually provides for a refund of contributions made by employees with or without interest. The great majority of public employees leaving public employment take a refund of their contributions, and by such action forfeit certain valuable equities which they have accumulated during that employment. While the average length of service of these withdrawing employees is of relatively short duration and their average age comparatively young, there are in this group a substantial number of persons of advanced ages and of reasonably long periods of employment who forfeit valuable pension rights by the acceptance of refunds. This weakness in individual retirement plans has become more striking with the advent of the Social Security Act and with the continued operation of that Act.

To meet the problem created by the withdrawal of contributions and the consequent loss of pension rights, a solution has been developed in recent years in the form of a vesting provision which is now embodied in a great many pension plans. This provision varies with many of the plans but provides in substance that employees completing a certain period of service receive a vested

right under the retirement plan in the form of a deferred annuity to become effective upon attainment of the age prescribed for superannuation retirement, ranging anywhere from 55 to 70 years of age. Such a provision was included in the 1942 amendments to the Civil Service Retirement Act for federal civilian employees, whereby employees completing at least five years of service would be granted a vested interest in the form of a deferred annuity beginning at the age of 62 years.

Experience discloses that the largest number of such withdrawals occur during the early years of employment. Such a provision therefore does not add materially to the cost of the retirement plan but has the distinct advantage of better employee morale by overcoming the problem arising out of the mobility of employees. This feature of vestment, as expressed by the provision for a deferred annuity, tends largely to remove this defect, and at the same time it adds substantially to the value of the plan in the minds of the employees. To quote from a recent report of the National Industrial Conference Board on this feature of a retirement plan,

The inclusion of vesting right in the group-annuity plan enables the worker to change jobs without sacrificing the annuity already purchased in his behalf. It is also a valuable protection to the older worker, for if his services are terminated either because of change in management, technological improvements, or for any other cause, he retains title to all units of annuity accumulated by joint contributions. The sense of added security engendered by this safeguard probably will be reflected in a more contented and loyal staff and thus promote more harmonious relations between men and management.

Complete vestment of pension rights (vestment after completion of one year of service), while providing the ideal solution, has its practical limitations. By providing vestment after five years of employment, those employees with reasonably long periods of service are assured a pension expectancy of a reasonable amount at the end of their productive years. Another solution to this problem has been proposed, however, which, while constituting the ideal form of

meeting this problem, has certain practical objections. This solution involves the extension of the Old Age and Survivors Insurance provisions of the Social Security Act to public employees.

THE QUESTION OF SOCIAL SECURITY COVERAGE

EMPLOYEES of state and local governments have been excluded from the provisions of the Social Security Act since the inception of that program. The reasons for this exclusion and the general relation of public employees to social security is discussed fully by Rainard B. Robbins, Vice-President of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America, in the October and November, 1942 issues of *The Spectator* in an article entitled "Social Security for All." To quote Mr. Robbins:

This exception did not arise from administrative difficulties, and there is every reason to think that public employees and their families are as much in need of the benefits in question as if they were in industrial employment. But there is a constitutional difficulty. Can the federal government require a tax from a state or a subdivision of a state? This is held to be contrary to the federal Constitution because it is not among the powers delegated to the federal government by the Constitution. This is a serious stumbling block because the states and their subdivisions are employers of some three million workers and, if the exception in question were removed, the law would require taxes from these public employers. Only a few years ago it had been rather generally agreed that the federal government could not tax a federal employee. However, this rule has been discarded, and some lawyers suggest that perhaps the Supreme Court might rule that the federal government could tax a state, at least as an employer. But it would be far better if some arrangement could be made through which public employers would be led to cooperate without compulsion; it is not pleasant to contemplate the possibilities involved when the federal government attempts to force state action.²

Placing public employees under the Social Security Act would provide the ideal solution to the problem created by the constant shifting of employees between public and private employers, since continuing protec-

² In this connection, it is noteworthy that a bill (S.1161), introduced in the Senate recently by Senator Wagner of New York, provides among other things that state and local governments may voluntarily participate in the federal Social Security program.

tion would be offered to all workers regardless of change in occupation or employers (at least to the extent of the basic social security benefits). It is the considered opinion of students of the pension problem, however, that social security coverage alone would not fulfill the requirements of local governments for adequate measures to take care of their aged and disabled employees, because of the low level of benefits provided and the lack of flexibility of the federal plan.

It is improbable, then, that a national system can be designed to meet all of the conditions found in the public service. For example, a staff retirement plan similar to private plans is designed to fulfill certain definite personnel objectives. Besides enabling the employer to relieve his payrolls of inefficient and disabled employees, it helps his recruitment policy, particularly at a time when the employment problem is most acute, by making the service more attractive to persons of ability and capacity. In this way the plan brings about increased efficiency in administration and results in certain economies.

On the other hand, a staff retirement plan alone cannot be considered as affording complete protection for the worker because of its inherent inability to provide for mobility of labor. The withdrawal of employees from public employment to enter private industry interrupts continuity of protection, since most individual plans do not provide for full vestment of equities. This inability to provide for migration of workers has long been recognized as a weakness of local retirement plans.

At best, the federal Social Security Act in its present form can provide only a subsistence benefit; it is not intended to set up a schedule of benefits which could be regarded as a satisfactory form of complete protection for employees. In its broadest aspects the present Social Security Act may be considered as providing only the minimum level or "floor" of protection. Following this line of reasoning, complete security for a worker may be said to consist of three levels

of protection: (1) the minimum provided by the Social Security Act; (2) the supplementation made by staff retirement plans; and (3) the additional insurance or such welfare benefits that the worker can provide for himself out of any surplus earnings that he may have left over.

CONCLUSION

THREE has been a marked increase in the creation of new retirement plans for public employees during recent years.³ At the same time, the adoption of the Social Security Act has given impetus to the movement for retirement coverage of public employees. At present many state and municipal governments are considering the adoption of local plans for their employees.

The financing of retirement and disability plans is primarily an insurance problem involving mathematical calculations which become more accurate as the unit dealt with becomes larger. For this reason larger units are most desirable and a state-wide system covering employees of smaller governmental units within a state offer the best advantages from a standpoint of actuarial soundness. The answer to the retirement problem for employees of small local governments is the state-wide system, in which all political units within the state, representing all branches of the public service, would be permitted to participate on behalf of their employees. The underlying plan of benefit and contribution provisions would be formulated according to occupations to meet the peculiar requirements of certain types of public employees, such as policemen, firemen, and teachers. Individual systems might be best suited for the metropolitan areas of the various states and could well operate as in-

³ According to the Bureau of the Census, in its *Retirement Systems for State and Local Government Employees, Summary Report*, (State and Local Government Special Study No. 17, April, 1943), there were in operation in January, 1942, 1753 different retirement systems for state and local government employees, of which 1960 are of contributory form and 393 of noncontributory form. The total membership of these systems was 1,494,714. This is roughly equivalent to forty-five per cent of the total number of non-federal public employees in service at that time.

dependent units to meet local personnel conditions.

The variations of the state-wide system already in operation are numerous, due to differences in social and economic conditions. In the state of New York, for example, all political subdivisions participate in the state employees' retirement system, and only the approval of the local legislative body is required for participation. New Jersey, Illinois, Colorado, and California require that participation must be approved by a vote of the electors of each municipality. Thus the plan for those states having no state-wide system can be designed to fit the conditions within that state. Such a plan will provide an answer to the problem of the small local government, by which the desired protection for all public employees can be pro-

vided on a sound, equitable, and economical basis.

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Employment Stabilization in the Detroit City Service

CHARLES A. MEYER

THE dislocations in labor supply and demand that have everywhere accompanied the change-over from a peace-time economy to one of war are well known and need no recital. In Detroit, the "arsenal of democracy," the vast scale of war production projected these dislocations on a scale equally vast, and the problems thus created, it was found, would not yield to stop-gap remedies and expedients of dubious value.

This does not mean that such expedients were not tried. They were, and in many ways they served only to make the original problem more acute. In a city where plant personnel staffs were still thinking in terms of the recent depression era, with its surplus of skilled labor going begging, management in general was loath to sanction training and apprenticeship programs to augment a fast-diminishing labor supply. Since cost-plus contracts, together with the general upswing in living costs, made pay raises for war workers a matter of comparatively minor moment in the eyes of preoccupied industrial managers, the situation rapidly developed into one of competitive bidding for talent. Indeed, the augmented pay envelope soon became almost the sole reliance of many recruiting programs. Employers resorted to pirating from one another in lieu of developing new sources of labor supply, and employees joined quickly in the game by job-shopping at every opportunity. All the while, the operation of the Selective Service program steadily drained increasing vol-

umes of manpower from a labor pool that had long since ceased to meet demands.

While all employers in the Detroit area were eventually affected adversely by these conditions, the burden fell quickest and heaviest on those with relatively rigid pay plans, and the Detroit city government was one of these. The wage rates and premium pay offered by war industries were sufficiently attractive to cause large numbers of municipal employees to forego tenure, good working conditions, and pension benefits accumulated over many years in the city service. Many employees seeking to leave the city service to enjoy the monetary possibilities growing out of the war emergency were even willing to forfeit all benefits of city employment through outright resignation. Although the Civil Service Commission had attempted to conserve its personnel by applying a policy of restricting leaves of absence to a minimum, the willingness of employees to resign reduced the effectiveness of the leave policy.

THE EMPLOYMENT STABILIZATION PLAN

A PLAN to stabilize employment in the Detroit area was announced by the War Manpower Commission on December 9, 1942, as a partial solution to the manpower shortage. The stabilization plan was in the form of a labor-management agreement seeking to reduce turnover by eliminating labor pirating and job-shopping. It also provided machinery whereby available manpower would be placed to assure a maximum utilization of skills in "essential" activities. Among the thirty-five activities listed as es-

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sential was "government services." The Civil Service Commission recommended to the Mayor that the city of Detroit, as one of the large employers in the area, formally participate in the agreement. As a result, the Mayor issued an Executive Order, endorsed by the Common Council, which established the Commission as the agent of the city in administering procedures incidental to the plan.

The terms of the plan center about an agreement on the part of employers in essential activities to refuse to hire or solicit workers from other essential industries within the area unless applicants are able to present certificates of release from former employers or other authorized sources. In the event an employer refuses to issue a release to an employee, the latter is entitled to appeal such decision to the United States Employment Service for further consideration. In the event this agency upholds the employer, the employee may appeal to the War Manpower Commission for final action.

Acceptable reasons for changing employment include the following:

1. Unwillingness or inability of employer to utilize employee at his highest proven skill.
2. Failure of employer to provide full-time employment.
3. Excessive difficulty of transportation to and from employee's place of work.
4. Compelling personal reasons.
5. Employment at wages or under working conditions substantially less favorable than those prevailing in the community for the same kind of work.

Employees seeking release for other employment on the basis of either of the first two reasons enumerated above are entitled to obtain clearance unless their employer provides full-time employment at their highest proven skill within a five-day period. Under the terms of the initial Detroit plan, in the event a release was issued, the employee retained seniority accumulated prior to release but did not accumulate seniority

while on leave. (A regional plan since applied does not provide for mandatory maintenance of seniority.) Employees so released can be recalled at such time as an employer is able to provide full-time employment at the highest proven skill of the employee.

Advertising for skilled workers in essential activities is not permissible under the terms of the agreement unless the advertisement contains a clause stating in essence that "only persons eligible under the terms of the War Manpower Commission Employment Stabilization Plan need apply."

APPLICATION TO CITY SERVICE

APPLICATION of these provisions has necessitated certain modifications in so far as municipal employment is concerned. For example, the city charter provides that "examinations shall be open, free, and competitive." Since requiring releases prior to acceptance of applications for examination would conflict with these charter provisions, all persons otherwise eligible for admittance have been permitted to compete in examinations. No eligible is certified to a position, however, unless he presents either a release or evidence that he has not been employed in an essential activity. Eligibles unable to obtain releases are entitled to have their names retained on the eligible list for a period of two years.

Another modification of the basic plan results from those problems that are peculiar to the municipal service. In the city service, probationary employees, provisional employees, and war service employees (persons hired for the duration with explicit understanding that they do not have permanent civil service status) do not accumulate seniority or other perquisites of civil service. Accordingly, the Commission uses two forms of release: (1) a conditional release, providing for maintenance of seniority and the right of the city to recall the employee when appropriate employment is available; and (2) an unconditional release, under which neither the city nor employee have any further claims on each other.

Employees who sever their employment with the city and refuse to cooperate in the release procedure are considered as having left the service in bad standing and are not eligible for reemployment by the city for a period extending to two years after the war. Since the stabilization agreement is purely voluntary, no direct penalties are provided in the plan itself. Therefore, specific applications require implementation of the basic provisions to discourage violations. A discharge, or a disciplinary suspension or lay-off for a period exceeding seven days, entitles an employee to a release. An employee who severs connections with his job for a period of 30 days can obtain a statement of availability through the Employment Service, even though one is denied by the employer. The attaching of the above-mentioned denial of reemployment penalty by the city for employees who have refused to comply with the release procedure has thus had an appreciable effect in discouraging non-cooperation on the part of employees.

EXPERIENCE UNDER THE PLAN

THE application of the plan has had a number of salutary effects on the personnel problem in the Detroit municipal service. It has reduced job-shopping and labor pirating. By giving emphasis to the stand that wages alone are not a reason for changing employment, wage competition has been reduced. In the municipal service, placement procedures have been speeded up and many employees are working at higher skills than formerly. Turnover figures are still high, but in the first five months of 1943, approximately 700 employees who would otherwise have left the city service have been retained as a result of the application of the plan. This number includes only those who made formal application for release and whose requests were denied. Informal statistics indicate that the program has discouraged a large number of employees from seeking to leave the service who, in the absence of such plan, would prob-

ably have sought employment elsewhere.¹

Apart from the emergency situation, the increased emphasis on an active placement program has effected improvements in the functioning of the Civil Service Commission. Techniques have been developed which have materially reduced the time required for processing both intra-departmental and inter-departmental transfers and promotions. Closer contacts with operating officials have been developed by the staff, with a consequent increase in mutual understanding of the respective problems and operations of the personnel agency and the departments. Supervising and subordinate employees alike have become more alert to the desirability of utilizing higher skills and to the possibilities of transfers within the city service. Excellent cooperation on the part of both the United States Employment Service and the War Manpower Commission has also been of substantial aid to the Civil Service Commission in administering the plan.

Although legal provisions and local conditions existing in other jurisdictions may create problems that differ from those encountered in Detroit in adapting the employment stabilization program to the city service, the Detroit experience thus far has made the effort to work out these adjustments well worth while. Although not perfect, the plan has helped considerably in keeping essential public service going, and has thereby enabled the Detroit city government to continue to contribute its vital part in the all-out war effort of its citizens.

¹ A compilation of statistics shows that, from the inception of the plan until the middle of June, 1943, there were 2012 requests by employees for releases from the city service. Of this number, 160 were granted conditional releases, 1075 were given unconditional releases, and 777 requests were denied.

Among those granted conditional releases were a substantial number of women employees who wished to cease work altogether for reasons of health, or to return to domestic duties. It should also be noted that not all of the 777 employees who were denied releases thereafter remained in the city service. Some few appealed successfully to the Employment Service, or remained off the payroll for the required 30 days, and thereby received releases automatically subsequent to the denial of their initial request.

The Use of Service Ratings for Employee Guidance

JOHN G. WATKINS

THE principal use to which service rating systems have long been put has been to provide a measure of the individual employee's efficiency. Such ratings are used as guiding or controlling factors in administrative actions concerning pay raises, promotions, demotions, and lay-offs. As yardsticks of the employee's personal effectiveness, these ratings serve a valuable end, and to achieve this end the primary emphasis has necessarily been on impersonal objectivity in the reporting process and high validity in the measured results.

There is, however, another function to which a service rating system may contribute—one that is supervisory rather than administrative in nature. This is the function of furnishing personal guidance to the individual employee. A service rating system used in this manner becomes an instrument for improving the quality and quantity of work output. As such it must bridge the gap between scientific measurement and personal motivation.

When the guidance function is incorporated in a service rating system, several basic assumptions must be made. For example, the question of permitting employees to see their ratings has been argued pro and con. If the system is conceived as a device for education as well as evaluation, then the desirability of enabling employees to know their standings becomes a necessity. Again, it is necessary to recognize one of the fundamentals of sound administration: that an employee should not be criticized without

at the same time being shown specific methods of improvement. In fact, any type of evaluation which merely tells an employee what is wrong with him and stops at that point is of little value from the standpoint of remedying his shortcomings.

To accomplish a constructive end, measurement and reporting of deficiency must be positive. Purely negative criticism tends to be destructive of an employee's morale, and the cumulative effect of angered and discouraged employees is a poorer quality and quantity of work. Efficiency can easily be lowered by bad morale more than it can be raised by any system of rewards or punishments based on service ratings, no matter how objective and technically perfect such a system may be.

MOST systems devised in the past, seeking to secure objectivity, have couched the terms describing a desired trait or lack of it in language that is often brusque. This has been done with little consideration for the feelings of the employee or his probable reaction. Because low ratings have usually been reported bluntly and with little or no word of encouragement or helpful advice, employees generally dislike a service rating system. By the same token, supervisors who are called upon to rate their subordinates are quite often aware of the potentially damaging effect of an adverse report on the morale of the employee, and one result is that they are consciously or unconsciously inclined to turn their back on the employee's shortcomings. Any device which almost forces the supervisor to give high rat-

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ings destroys the entire value of the procedure. True merit is no longer rewarded; complacency is encouraged.

If the worker is so inefficient that encouragement or help will make little difference, dismissal, rather than supervisory guidance, is the correct solution. But most people can improve greatly if their faults are pointed out to them with tact, and if they are shown how they can overcome these defects. The superiority of this positive approach has been verified in many studies of motivation both in the industrial and the educational world. For example, praise has been found superior to reproof in stimulating the average person to greater efforts.¹

Since the ultimate purpose of any service rating system must be to secure better employees and a higher quality of work, it would seem that the language employed in a rating scale, if it is to be seen by the employee, should be chosen with great care. The employee should finish reading his service rating report with certain definite attitudes:

1. He should understand his strong points and deficiencies.
2. He should feel that the criticism has been offered in a helpful mood; under no circumstances should he be left angered and disgruntled.
3. He should have a strong desire to do something constructive about his bad points.
4. He should have received definite "tips" for improving.

With this goal in mind the Alabama State Personnel Department recently attempted to devise a system which would combine these desirable features with the other necessary elements of a proper service rating system. Principal points of emphasis were as follows:

1. High objectivity, reliability, and validity.
2. Encouraging and tactful wording.

¹ Elizabeth Hurlock. "An Evaluation of Certain Incentives Used in School Work," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 16: 145-59, 1925.

3. Phrasing of steps so as to compel supervisors to give careful and objective consideration.

4. Specific advice where low ratings were given.

REVISION OF FORM

THE form previously used in the Department consisted of a conventional five-step rating schedule, in which the various degrees of each trait were identified by descriptive phrases at intervals along a horizontal scale. The form was not original with the Department, but represented an adaption of a basic type used in a number of jurisdictions.² From a technical standpoint it was adequate for the purpose of obtaining a general index of the individual employee's relative worth. When reviewed with the foregoing objectives in mind, however, the form disclosed certain shortcomings. Principal among these was the fact that the descriptions of the several degrees of the various traits were phrased in language that was always impersonal and sometimes quite blunt. An employee whose net rating was on the unfavorable side, after reviewing his report, could hardly escape the impression that he had received a "dressing down" in a coldly detached sort of way, and without a word of suggestion toward possible means of improving his shortcomings. It was in search of a remedy for this deficiency that a revision of the original service report form was undertaken.

The revised form retained some of the features of the earlier form. For example, most of the major traits on which employees were rated were carried over to the new form. In the revised form they are as follows:

Quantity of Work	Dependability
Quality of Work	Emotional Stability
Rate of Output	Judgment
Cooperation	Stamina
Initiative	Promptness

² For a description of this basic type of form, see Charles A. Adams, "Employee Service Reports in Smaller Cities," *Public Management*, March, 1940, pp. 67-70.

Basic changes were made, however, in the format and wording of the rating scale under the broad traits. The horizontal scale was abandoned in favor of a check-list arrangement, and the language used to describe the various steps was revamped. The following example of the same trait in the old and new versions will illustrate the nature of the change.³

OLD FORM

Quantity of Work:

- () Unusually high output.
- () High output.
- () Normal output.
- () Limited output.
- () Insufficient production; unsatisfactory.

NEW FORM

Quantity of Work:

Just a friendly suggestion:

- () Exceptionally high output. Keep it up.
- () Better than average. Good going.
- () Meeting our requirements.
- () You could do more. Try harder.
- () You could do a lot more. Try much harder.

Additional random samples from the new form further demonstrate the effort that was made to "humanize" the report as a factor influencing the morale of the employee.

Cooperation:

Teamwork is essential.

- () You don't seem to realize that you are just a cog in a large wheel.
- () Why be so critical of others? Try getting along with folks.
- () Independent worker. You don't antagonize others, but you could be more helpful to them.

³ In this example, both traits are presented in checklist fashion for convenience. As previously noted, however, the phrases used in the old form appeared at evenly-spaced points on a horizontal scale.

- () Good teamworker; better than average.
- () Very cooperative. Wish all of us were up here.

Promptness:

- () Always at work on time. We like it.
- () Rarely late; sometimes early.
- () Usually right on time. Not bad.
- () Maybe you had better walk a little faster sometimes. What do you think?
- () Set that alarm clock earlier. It's getting to be a habit.

In line with the altered approach, the new form was entitled the "Employee Guidance Sheet," thus directing the workers' attention to the guidance rather than the rating aspect. A comprehensive statement was prepared and placed in the hands of each supervisor, calling attention to the shift in emphasis and giving detailed information concerning interpretations of traits and other similar points on which uniformity was essential. In this connection, a noteworthy feature of the revised form was the revision that was made in the wording of the statement preceding the signature of the reporting supervisor. A comparison between the old and the new text illustrates the significance of the change.

OLD FORM

I have studied carefully this entire form, and have conscientiously checked the traits without allowing myself to be influenced by my personal attitude toward the employee.

NEW FORM

To Employee: I have studied carefully this entire form, and have conscientiously checked the traits without allowing myself to be influenced by my personal attitude toward you. If you think this isn't right, come in and let's talk it over.

Other features, common to both forms, include a statement in which the reporting supervisor indicates whether the duties of the position have changed since the last rating period, calling for a possible reclassification of the employee's position, together

with a scale on which the department head indicates his general opinion of the supervisor's ability as a rater of his subordinates' strong and weak points.⁴

All in all, the process of revision had one chief objective—to provide an adequate basis for rating the employee's strong and weak points and at the same time consider the possible impact of the rating on the employee's feelings when the time came for him to review his report. Even the use of humor was considered desirable. The revised wording of the check-list under the trait "Promptness" in the foregoing illustration is an example of this "when you say that, smile" psychology. It was felt that criticism presented in a kindly or slightly humorous (but not sarcastic) way would be received in better grace than if phrased as a coldly objective verdict.

CHANGES IN SCORING SYSTEM

UNDER the original plan, employees had been divided into five different groups on an occupational basis, different sets of scoring weights being used for each group. A study of past data indicated that a smaller number of categories would be sufficient and would simplify the handling of scores. The scoring schedule for evaluating the checked items was modified, providing three different sets of weights, depending on the type of work performed by the employee. One set of weights applied to administrators and supervisors; a second set applied to those classes of positions that could be characterized as "skilled;" and a third set applied to the routine or unskilled jobs. The scoring schedule for the individual traits, as applied to each of these three broad categories, is as follows:

⁴ In the old form, the department head was given three choices to check: "Too Liberal," "Fair to Employee," and "Too Hard-boiled." In the new form, the number of degrees was increased to five, and the wording was changed, as follows: "Very Liberal;" "Slightly Liberal;" "Exactly Right;" "Slightly Conservative;" and "Very Conservative." The change permitted the department head to censure the judgment of the supervisor either mildly or strongly, as circumstances required, without doing so in a too-blunt fashion.

SCHEDULE OF DIFFERENTIAL TRAIT WEIGHTS

Trait	Executive-Supervisor	Skilled Worker	Unskilled Worker
Quality of work	4	4	4
Quantity of work	4	4	4
Rate of output	2	2	2
Cooperation	2	2	2
Initiative	4	2	1
Dependability	2	4	4
Emotional stability	1	2	1
Judgment	4	2	1
Stamina	1	2	4
Promptness	1	1	2

A study of this weighting schedule indicates its underlying principle. Each trait was given an over-all weight of one, two, or four, depending on its relative importance in connection with other traits in the same broad job category. For example, traits like "Initiative" were considered most important in the Executive-Supervisor class, and were given the maximum weight of four. In contrast, among the unskilled workers this trait received only a weight of one.

In applying these weights to the actual scoring of the five-step check-list appearing under each of the broad traits, the following general schedule is used:⁵

Weight of Trait	Credit on Five-Step Check-List				
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
1	0	1	1	1	2
2	0	1	2	3	4
4	0	2	4	6	8

The employee's over-all rating is obtained by first totalling the various credits corresponding to the supervisor's check marks in accordance with the foregoing schedule. To this total is added a constant factor of 50 in order to convert the rating to a 100-point scale. The lowest and highest possible ratings under this plan are 50 and 100, respectively; a rating in the vicinity of 75 is deemed "satisfactory."

⁵ One exception to this schedule is in the rating of "Initiative." The check-list of steps under this trait is so phrased that the middle degree represents the optimum, on the theory that an employee can exercise too much initiative, as well as too little. On this trait, therefore, the third step receives the greatest credit, and the two extremes receive the least.

EXPERIENCE WITH REVISED FORM

THUS far, the revised form has been used in two regular rating periods. The general reaction of employees to the form has been quite favorable. Although some criticism was directed at it by a few supervisors who were more accustomed to the older form, it is probable that their criticism is traceable to the fact that the wording of the new form requires them to give careful consideration to their ratings, whereas the old form encouraged them to give high ratings to all of their subordinates.

In its present state of development, the new form is still far from a polished product. No attempt has yet been made to submit it to statistical validation, but as experience mounts, further changes and refinements are anticipated. But even at this early stage in the experiment, the favorable influence of the altered approach in terms of employee morale has emerged as a significant finding. As such, the underlying philosophy here embodied may have application in other jurisdictions where service rating systems are being perfected.

Military Personnel Administration: the United States Marine Corps¹

MAJOR JOSEPH W. HAWTHORNE

THE term "personnel classification," as used in its military sense, is not to be confused with the term "position-classification" as understood by most personnel technicians. Whereas public personnel technicians carefully abstract the man from the position and deal with classification factors affecting the position only, military personnel technicians regard the term "classification" as affecting the man. "Personnel classification," then, means a process by which all pertinent data regarding a man in the service are collected, recorded, analyzed, and evaluated so that his chief abilities, aptitudes, and potentialities may be put to military service in a minimum of time and with a maximum of efficiency.

This does not mean, of course, that position-classification as such is not a necessary function of military personnel work. Before proper assignments can be made or, in other words, before effective personnel classification can take place, each unit of work in the military organization must be studied and defined. Fortunately most of the work had already been done by the Army in preparing a compilation of descriptions of Army jobs. This compilation (AR615026) has already been mentioned by Major Horchow in his discussion of military personnel administra-

tion in the Army. This article will be largely limited, however, to the techniques of assignment of men.

The Marine Corps has probably always had a system of personnel classification. It has always prided itself on its attention to the individual and upon the success of its training programs in making the individual a well-rounded Marine, capable of performing any of the duties which might arise in the course of any operations in which the Marine Corps might be engaged. The Corps has always been relatively small and officers knew from long association with their men what particular tasks they were best qualified to perform and, incidentally, were themselves superbly trained for the task which they had to do.

In the present war, however, two important factors have served to break down the on-the-cuff method of personnel classification by the personal knowledge of men by officers. The first was the almost explosive expansion in the size of the Corps. Already it has doubled its size once, doubled again, and doubled yet again since the war began. A sudden influx of new officers and new men made it impossible for officers to know intimately the men under their command, as a consequence of which a more formalized system of personnel classification was obviously indicated.

Aside from the factor of expansion, however, a second factor also was operative. As previously mentioned, the old Marine Corps consisted of men who prided themselves on their ability to do all tasks in the Corps. But the present war, with its increased mech-

¹ This is the second of a series of articles dealing with various aspects of military personnel administration. The first article in the series, *Military Personnel Administration: the United States Army*, by Major Reuben Horchow, appeared in the April, 1943 issue.

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anization and increased specialization, has made it impossible for any one man to know intimately all of the jobs that must be done in a modern fighting unit. Thus, the demand for a large number of specialists in itself created a demand for another specialty in personnel classification.

A REAL MERIT SYSTEM

IT IS notable that, while merit systems in civilian life were under frequent attack as being frills with which government could well dispense during the war, old-line practical Marine Corps officers were casting about for a means of utilizing modern scientific procedures for putting into effect a system which for all practical purposes is a real merit system. They realized that the men assigned to operate costly equipment should be the best men available, in order that the equipment might be used to the fullest extent of its effectiveness; they realized that every job in the Corps should be filled with the person best fitted to do that job. The fact that human life was at stake, as well as expensive equipment, undoubtedly served to bring home the realization of the necessity for a merit system more forcibly to the military than to the civilian mind.

Responsible Marine officers making a survey of systems already in operation decided to pattern the Marine Corps program after the one developed and used by the Army. The following description of the system put into operation by the Marine Corps is thus in many respects similar to the Army's personnel program, with such modifications as are necessary due to the differences in organizational and functional patterns between the two.

INDUCTION TESTING PROGRAM

THE recruit or inductee who first comes into the Marine Corps spends one of his first three days at the Classification Section of the Recruit Depot. He is first given three basic tests, the Army General Classification Test, the Army Mechanical Aptitude Test,

and the Radio Operator's Aptitude Test.

The General Classification Test is a type of test that is frequently termed an "intelligence" test—a term which, however, has been studiously and advisedly avoided. The test is considered to be a measure of one's ability to learn, to adapt oneself to new situations, and to adjust to new conditions. As such, it seems to work fairly well. As a result of this test, men are classified roughly as follows:

- Grade I—Very rapid learners.
- Grade II—Rapid learners.
- Grade III—Average learners.
- Grade IV—Slow learners.
- Grade V—Very slow learners.

The Mechanical Aptitude Test similarly measures an individual's ability to deal with things, to perceive spatial relationships and mechanical principles, and thus purports to measure his ability to acquire technical skills. As a result of the test, individuals are classified into five groups similar to those resulting from the General Classification Test, but based on their ability to adapt to mechanical situations.

The Radio Operator's Aptitude Test is one of the many tests of aptitude and ability which may be used. It is given as a basic test to all entering Marines because of the critical shortage of individuals capable of learning radio code quickly, and like the other tests, it classifies men into five grades as to their ability to acquire this type of skill.

The entering Marine spends either a morning or an afternoon in taking these tests. As soon as he has completed them he is given an orientation lecture in which he is acquainted with the general purposes of the personnel classification program and with the fact that he will be asked to state his choice of duty in the service. In order that he may answer this question intelligently, he is given a brief summary of the various branches of the service for which he may indicate a choice, thus giving him a bird's-eye view of the entire Corps. This orientation is not only useful as a part of his basic training, but also serves an immediate pur-

pose for the personnel classification program.

TYPES OF DUTY

IN THE course of the orientation lecture, the following types of duty are described for the information of the inductee:

The Fleet Marine Force—General Duty. These are the main fighting troops of the Corps who make the landings, hold the positions, and cooperate with the Army and the Navy in fighting the enemy. The Fleet Marine Force includes infantry, artillery, engineers, and armored units, as well as men who have been trained for communications, commissary, motor transport, clerical and ordnance duty.

Sea Duty. These men serve on board the ships of the Navy. They are the gun crews for certain of the ship's batteries and are sometimes used for small landing parties. Men assigned to sea duty must be five feet eight inches in height, in fine physical condition, and excellent marksmen.

Aviation. The Marine Corps, like the Army and the Navy, has its air force. Men who are assigned to this branch are merely assigned for general duty and no one can be promised in advance that he will actually be given flight training or any other special assignment. The aviation receiving stations will take the men assigned to aviation and make further selections of the men to be sent to special schools, operating squadrons, or occupations such as pilots, navigators, gunners, radio operators, instrument men, machinists, mechanics, metalsmiths, photographers, and many others.

Shore Station. Marines are used for shore duty both within the continental limits of the United States and overseas bases, and as guards at navy yards, naval prisons, etc.

Communications. This branch includes telephone, radio, aircraft detection duty, and signal work. The more knowledge of physics, electricity, and mathematics a man has, and the keener his ear for differences in sound, the more adaptable he is for this work.

Band and Field Music. All major combat units, such as regiments and separate battalions, have bands and trumpeters. All smaller units, posts, and stations have trumpeters. These men not only furnish music and sound the various calls, but serve in the field as messengers.

Commissary Branch. This very necessary service acquires, stores, and prepares the food needed for the men. It includes such occupations as meat cutters, bakers, cooks, storekeepers, and stewards.

Clerical. The Marine Corps in all of its branches needs clerical workers who will help to handle supplies, make payments, handle personnel and other records, and aid in administrative work. It needs, therefore, men who are or who can be quickly trained to become clerks, typists, stenographers, payroll clerks, bookkeepers, auditors, storekeepers, etc.

Motor Transport. Modern fighting forces include large numbers of tanks and tractors. Much of such equipment in the Marine Corps is amphibian. The Marine Corps also uses a large number of light and heavy trucks, scout cars, jeeps, motorcycles, and other motorized equipment. It, therefore, requires men who are drivers, chauffeurs, motorcycle operators, auto mechanics, automobile service men, machinists, etc. Men who operated caterpillar tractors on the farm are especially adaptable as tank drivers.

Ordnance. Men are needed to repair and maintain the weapons of the Corps, such as the rifles, automatic rifles, sub-machine guns, machine guns, the field and base defense artillery, anti-aircraft and anti-tank guns. Gunsmiths, mechanics, precision machine workers, workers in ordnance plants, and optical instrument repair workers are especially adapted for this work.

EARLY CHOICE OF DUTY

IT MIGHT be wondered why the above branches are described during the early days of the Marine's service rather than later, and why the Marine should indicate a choice of duty early in his military career

rather than later when he knows more about it. The main reason for getting a statement of choice from the inductee is, of course, that the person doing the work he likes to do will, other things being equal, do better work than the person required to do things he does not like. The reason for getting an early statement of choice is that it is felt that the choice will be truer and more accurate if obtained before the Marine has a chance to pick up misinformation and rumors ("scuttlebutt" to the Marine Corps) after he has been in the service for some time.

After having listened to the lecture on the various types of service, the Marine recruit is interviewed by an experienced interviewer who has been trained to elicit information from the shy and reluctant individuals and to hold the expansive ones to the line. Among the points on which the interviewer obtains and records information are the following:

1. Date of birth, birthplace, and citizenship.
2. Marital status and number of dependents.
3. Birthplace of father and mother.
4. Amount of education, last year of school, and languages spoken.
5. Sports in which qualified.
6. Talent for furnishing public entertainment.
7. Main, secondary, and additional occupations.
8. Hobbies.
9. Rating on Army General Classification Test, Aptitude, Trade, and other tests.
10. Previous military experience.
11. Highest position of leadership, including military.
12. Service schools, courses, and school ratings.
13. Duty desired (first and second choices).
14. Classification in military specialties.
15. Record of current service.

In addition to the above, information is entered as to the ability of a Marine to drive a car, truck, tractor or motorcycle and also his proficiency with the various weapons which he uses during his basic training.

ASSIGNMENTS TO DUTY

WHILE the recruit is spending his eight weeks learning to become a Marine and to do the things that any Marine—cook, quartermaster, or typist—has to do, such as handle a rifle and other weapons, the Personnel Classification Section is busy with his qualifications card considering his future assignment. The Marine Corps selects and sends enlisted men to approximately two hundred different advanced courses of instruction and eventually into over a thousand military specialties. Assignments are made on the following bases, listed in the approximate order of their importance:

1. The immediate needs of the Corps.
2. Occupational background.
3. Test scores.
4. Educational background.
5. Expressed wishes of the Marine.
6. Record during basic training.

Proper assignment depends, of course, on a vast amount of background work. It was necessary, for example, to study the minimum requirements of the various schools and of military specialties in terms of test scores, educational and experiential background, and other pertinent criteria. An accurate description of the various jobs and schools was required. Also required was a special personnel classification school in order to teach interviewing techniques, test administration, interpretation of test scores, military occupations, and the techniques of handling cards and filling assignments.

RECORDING INFORMATION

INFORMATION obtained from recruits is transcribed onto an $8\frac{1}{2}'' \times 11''$ card containing a coding system so devised that pertinent information may be punched into

the edges of the card. The punching system makes it possible to sort out coded data readily by means of needles which are inserted through the holes in the proper code field at the edge of the card. The recruit depot classification officer is thus enabled to pick out all the mechanics, clerks or truck drivers with a simple insertion of needles. If, for example, he wants machinists who have graduated from high school, are in Grade II or better in both the Mechanical Aptitude and General Classification Tests, and who are interested in aviation, he can sort them out readily and accurately with a little "needling." Thus the work of filling quotas is greatly facilitated by the mechanical features of the system.

Marine Corps assignments are not made, however, solely on the basis of the cards which drop out of the mechanical process. In considering the assignments, classification officers select those factors which most obviously would qualify a Marine for the job or would make possible the filling of that job with the minimum of training. Beyond that, the classification officer studies the various other factors obtainable from the record of the Marine in order to assure himself that he is making the best possible assignment, both from the point of view of the Marine Corps and of the Marine.

Assignments can frequently be filled on the basis of civilian skills without too much difficulty. Often, however, it is necessary to "scrape the bottom of the barrel" in order to fill quotas. Then it becomes the duty of the classification officer to consider secondary factors. It may be necessary to make aviation mechanics out of automobile mechanics, or out of men who have repaired washing machines, or out of men who have taken shop courses in a vocational school, or even out of men who have had no mechanical training but whose test scores indicate a high degree of mechanical aptitude. The problem then becomes one not of getting the right man in the right job, but of getting somebody who, with the least amount of effort, can be trained to do the job.

HISTORY OF OPERATION

THE Marine Corps opened up classification sections at its recruit depots early in December, 1942. Since that time, these centers have been processing all entering recruits or inductees. Within a month, classification centers were opened up at the training centers and air stations where men were being given further training after receiving their basic training at the recruit depots.

These centers have two functions: to pick up and classify initially all of the men within the area who had not been classified at the recruit depot; and to receive men classified at recruit depots and assigned to certain broad fields of work previously mentioned. The training center classification officer makes further and refined assignments to more specific types of duty. The recruit depot classification officer, for example, assigns a man to aviation; the classification officer at the air station further assigns the man as an aviation mechanic, control tower operator, sheet metal worker, aviation ordnance man, or some other occupation in the aviation field.

Even with the work of the recruit depot, classification centers and the classification sections at training centers and air bases, there still remains a vast residue of unclassified Marines. In order to achieve the goal of completing a classification card on every Marine and of testing his aptitudes and abilities, it was decided to form mobile units consisting of classification officers, interviewers, testers and the like. These mobile units are now in the process of classifying all Marines at posts and stations within the continental limits of the United States and eventually will process all Marines in the service.

USE OF PERSONNEL CLASSIFICATION

The main purpose of personnel classification is to enable unit commanders to make the best use of the men under their command. Consequently, the Marine Corps decided that although it wished to keep information on every enlisted man at its headquarters at Washington, it was absolutely

essential that personnel qualification cards follow the men to whatever duty they might be assigned. The cards are kept in regimental headquarters where they may readily be sorted to pick out whatever skills may be needed at the moment. If the unit commander finds a special need for a telephone lineman, for example, he needs merely to needle through his cards in order to find one—a process infinitely quicker and much more dependable than that of "passing the word."

Strangely enough, the development of the personnel classification of the Marine Corps, although a newcomer to the Marine Corps

functions, seems to have followed the traditional pattern of the Corps. Starting out insufficiently manned and insufficiently equipped, it set deadlines for the beginning of its operations and met them as best it could. Naturally a few "bugs" developed, not all of which have been eliminated. Nevertheless in the five months of its operation to date, much has been accomplished and it is felt that the program, if it has not already done so, is beginning to sell itself to the first three pay grades (the sergeants), and if they are willing to admit that possibly there is something to the idea, the program has achieved success.

Civilian Employee Training at the Kansas City Quartermaster Depot

SCHUYLER HOSLETT

FROM the time the Kansas City Quartermaster Depot was established December 4, 1940, with fifteen employees experienced in Quartermaster activities, the addition of almost every new clerical employee has entailed the instruction of that employee in a job ordinarily foreign to his former work experience in civilian pursuits. Such training as this was done informally as part of the work of the supervisor to whom the new employee was assigned. Under such circumstances the immediate training objective was to teach an individual only that which was necessary for the execution of the particular job. Under the stress of rapid expansion and because of the customary lack of attention to positive personnel administration in the field prior to 1942 (due, in part, to paucity of funds), there was neither personnel nor facilities which could be devoted to those aspects of personnel management which are designed to orient the new employee in his total work environment. Neither was it generally possible to provide formal training of an employee beyond the limits of his own job. Although it was desirable from the standpoint of efficiency for every employee to understand the over-all functions and operations of his section, the acquirement of further knowledge depended for the most part upon the ability of the individual to seek it out for himself.

Indeed, emphasis on formal training programs was not marked until indications of a serious curtailment in the labor supply became apparent. A letter of October 10, 1942

from Headquarters, Seventh Service Command, prophesied that within six months there would be no more qualified manpower for new jobs and that to meet the situation more women, older men and physically handicapped persons would have to be employed and trained. Later in the month the same headquarters suggested the initiation of a well-rounded induction program, including distribution of suitable material, special training of supervisors, and employee counseling. It was also stressed that "in order for employees to be most effective they need to be made aware of the relationship of their own positions to the total job of the War Department, and the importance of their own work in relation to the total war effort."

INITIATION OF PROGRAM

ON DECEMBER 5, 1942, The Quartermaster General's office announced a specific training program for Quartermaster depots designed to implement the over-all training objectives previously announced by The Secretary of War. The Secretary desired an integrated War Department training program, projected with the same care given to military training plans, and designed to promote a high calibre civilian morale as well as to provide for both long range and immediate needs. In executing this policy, The Quartermaster General made training a responsibility of the depot commander, who, with the assistance of the former's office, was to provide training of individuals consistent with the following objectives:

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1. To increase the employee's present skills and to enable him to become proficient in more than one job.
2. To train supervisors as competent instructors of employees under their direction.
3. To provide general orientation of new employees to the job.

When the program was launched, the announced goal was:

to develop the highest skill in each and every employee and to prevent waste effort. New employees must be given special attention with a view to having them thoroughly understand from the beginning of their entry on duty just what is expected of them. Particular stress must be placed upon the weakest classes of employees in order to develop a well-coordinated team. . . . Training in Quartermaster Corps installations will include all classes of employees, regardless of how simple the task may seem. Training-on-the-job should accomplish the desired results and classroom instruction should be limited to subjects which present special problems. Training will be continuous for the duration of the war.

The four major aspects of training applicable to depots were designated as executive, supervisory, administrative, and clerical-stenographic. Executive training was to be conducted on an informal basis through conferences with executives. A suggested course of eight hours of conferences on supervisory training, designed to amplify and extend Job Instructor Training previously given in depots, included such subjects as the supervisor as a leader, his attitude toward his associates and subordinates, the woman worker, the older worker, morale, how to reprimand, planning the work, etc. Also projected was an administrative training plan for principal clerks and their assistants—the study of forms and procedures to reduce waste and overlapping. Clerical and stenographic training, the fourth major aspect of the program, was to include various tests to reveal fitness for available positions, supplemented by sufficient basic training to equip the employee for productive work quickly. This training period was also intended to provide opportunity for studying each new employee, thus enabling better placement. After placement, periodic checkups were to be scheduled to determine whether there

was satisfactory adjustment to the work situation.

In accordance with the directive, the depot outlined a program including the types of training indicated above and adding a safety training program and an occupational guidance service. The objectives of the Training Branch (organized in November, 1942) were, it was stated, to increase the efficiency of each employee, to provide trained employees to fill positions newly created or vacated by those entering military or other service, and to improve morale through development of a consciousness of the opportunities for advancement.¹

ELEMENTS OF TRAINING PROGRAM

AS THIS article is being written, there are approximately twenty-eight hundred civilian employees and two hundred military personnel employed by the Kansas City Quartermaster Depot. To serve the training needs of this group, the Training Branch has instituted the following courses and services to date:

Supervisors' and Foremen's Training Courses. The Training Branch instituted a supervisors' and foremen's course in February, 1943, consisting of six one-hour training sessions extended over as many weeks. Approximately 160 warehouse and office supervisors, or about eight per cent of the total number of depot employees, attended these classes taught by civilian supervisors. The instructional material was developed locally and covered such subjects as, "Importance and Responsibilities of Supervisors;" "Attitude of the Supervisor Toward his Superiors, Associates, and Subordinates;" "Answers to Typical Employee Questions" (such as the method used in computing overtime, victory tax and retirement deductions, and annual and sick leave); "Employee Welfare Services;" "How to Determine Efficiency Ratings;" and "Safety Practices."

¹ The present Chief of the Training Branch is Lt. W. F. O'Brien; the Director of the Civilian Personnel Division is Lt. Col. John R. Murphy.

Subsequently, the Training Section of the Office of The Quartermaster General developed an excellent course called "The Supervisor Deals with People." Comprehensive training manuals provided instructors with all information necessary in leading six conferences of one and one-half hours each on the following subjects:

1. The Supervisor as a Leader.
2. Getting Willing Cooperation.
3. Dealing with the New Groups of Workers.
4. Getting Discipline by Cooperation and Adjusting Grievances.
5. Safety and Health.
6. Using the Pay System to Best Advantage.

The discussion of the last-named topic was accompanied by two training films: one explained the wage board method used in depots in determining wages of "ungraded" employees (workers chiefly engaged in skilled and unskilled trades and labor); the other explained how "graded" positions are classified and reclassified under the Classification Act of 1923, as amended. "The Supervisor Deals with People" is now used in training all new supervisors.

*JIT, JRT, and JMT Courses.*² The initial Job Instructor Training program at the depot was completed on November 30, 1942. At that time thirty-six officers and 156 civilian supervisors had received instruction from War Production Board and War Manpower Commission trainers in the proper method of training an employee in performing new duties.³ When it was contemplated that the Training Within Industry Division

² Abbreviations refer to the official titles of the following training programs: "Job Instructor Training;" "Job Relations Training;" and "Job Methods Training."

³ In these courses the trainer demonstrates the correct method of instruction according to four basic steps. Each class member individually demonstrates the teaching of some phase of his own work to another member, inviting constructive criticism of the demonstration. These demonstrations reveal that lack of teaching success is usually due to failure of the teacher to think his job through and break it down into principal steps and key points before presentation to the new employee.

of the War Manpower Commission would be discontinued December 31, 1942, arrangements were made by The Quartermaster General to have the Commission train certain depot employees for thirty-two hours in the method of the Job Instructor Training ten-hour sessions. Upon completion of such job instruction to those supervisors added to the depot staff since November 1942, a Job Relations Training course will be offered for the purpose of instructing supervisory personnel in methods of gaining maximum cooperation from employees working under their direction. The Army Service Force has directed that this training be completed by June 30, 1943. Following the Job Relations Training course, a course in Job Methods Training (effective organization of work) will complete the cycle of courses which altogether should provide adequate supervisory training.

Military Correspondence Course. This instruction in writing military correspondence and indorsements in proper form, assembling correspondence and inclosures, preparing memoranda, telegrams, teletypes, etc., was inaugurated January 25, 1943. A typical course consists of four one-hour meetings extended over a period of a week interspersed with thirty minutes of outside work in connection with each meeting. Such training is intended for each new employee without previous experience in government work. It is also available to depot employees upon the request of the division director. The course is chiefly designed to train employees in the general aspects of military correspondence in order that the working supervisor can devote his instruction to the specific job to be accomplished rather than to the auxiliary information needed in its execution.

Clerical-Stenographic Replacement Pool. The pool, established March 6, 1943, is intended to further implement The Quartermaster General's instructions of December 5, 1942 to provide "sufficient basic training . . . in a central training unit" and to stress

training of "the weakest classes of employees." It is anticipated having typists and stenographers assigned to the pool upon induction, the number corresponding to the average weekly depot employment of such personnel. The new employee remains in the pool for at least one week, which is devoted largely to an orientation program and instruction in military and non-military correspondence. Actual work of a routine nature (submitted by divisions for performance or completed in the division itself upon request) gradually supplements training until the employee is a full-fledged worker requiring only occasional spot-checking. The employee continues in the pool until assigned by the Placement Branch to fill a requisition from a division for such an employee; in turn the Placement Branch hires a new employee for pool replacement. Eventually the program should replace the stenographic training for new employees outlined immediately above.

Handbook for Employees. A handbook, designed as a reference manual of information for employees concerning the rules, regulations, and privileges of their employment, is being published. It will discuss the purpose of the Quartermaster Corps, employment regulations and policies, the depot training program, employee activities and welfare, and employee responsibilities.

Tour of Depot for New Employees. Beginning March 21, 1943 daily tours of the reservation have been conducted for groups of not more than eleven persons. Since the object of the tour is not to entertain but to improve efficiency, persons selected are those whose work requires some knowledge of the depot operations beyond the scope of their particular section.

OTHER TRAINING ACTIVITIES

CIVILIAN training has not been limited to that offered by the Training Branch alone: individual divisions have conducted instructional programs for their employees

independently. While not sponsored by the Training Branch, these classes aid in fulfilling its announced objectives. The distinguishing feature between training offered by Divisions and Training Branch is that the former is generally concerned with specific on-the-job training applicable to an individual organizational unit, whereas the latter provides a general instruction in techniques applicable to any depot activity.⁴

Since the establishment of the depot, sections or branches of a division have periodically held classes to instruct personnel in new procedures and in the functions performed by each person in the unit. Instruction in the latter was intended to improve efficiency through wider individual knowledge of the action taken before and after a document reached the desk of the person concerned. It also provided partially trained personnel to substitute temporarily on other desks during absences, as well as on a permanent basis when necessary because of resignations and furloughs to military duty.

Since December, 1942 the Storage and Distribution Division has trained its supervisory warehouse personnel through weekly conferences conducted by the director. At these meetings warehouse representatives discuss aspects of their warehousing and personnel problems. From an exposition of an efficient manner in which a problem had been handled in one warehouse, other representatives gained valuable suggestions for their own improvement. These general discussions produced worthwhile ideas which would not have been forthcoming without the meeting of minds made possible by group discussion.

The Director of the Storage and Distribution Division has attempted to impress all

⁴ A recent exception to this statement, however, is a course for merchandise checkers developed jointly by the Training Branch of this and other depots and the Office of The Quartermaster General. This forty-hour course, combining classroom and on-the-job instruction, is taught by an experienced checker from the operating division. As the need for specialized training in critical fields increases, the Office of The Quartermaster General and the depot Training Branches will develop additional courses of specific content.

supervisors with the fact that they have "a grave responsibility in connection with the proper utilization of money, materials and manpower" and that it is their duty to see that the government receives eight hours' work of highest possible quality for eight hours' pay. To aid in achievement of this goal, the first formalized training program for all of the employees of the division was instituted February 22, 1943. It provided that the supervisor of each section devote one hour per week (on official time) for a period of eight weeks instructing his employees in the functions of the unit, the exact procedures followed, and the reasons therefor. Directions to the supervisors emphasized that they were to stress "typical examples of the daily routine involving unusual angles," confining their remarks to the operations of their own sections. Since it is well realized that most training programs fail because of insufficient preparation (and lack of attention to the manner of delivery), section chiefs were required to prepare a "schedule of instructions" for each class, to be submitted to the Branch chief for review, criticism and suggestion. The "learn by doing" method of instruction was

encouraged; lengthy discourses on subject matter were discouraged. It was suggested that supervisors avoid discussing more than two key points in a lecture and ascertain by questions whether employees thoroughly understood the points elaborated upon before proceeding further.

As a whole, this training program has been enthusiastically received by employees, and has proved itself exceptionally worthwhile. Supervisors attribute a definite increase in efficiency to the weekly instruction received by their workers. Many employees have asked for further training to acquaint them with the functions of sections and branches whose work is closely related to their own.

With the extension of specific on-the-job training to all of the larger divisions and with the execution of the program of the Training Branch to provide the general techniques of good supervision applicable to any kind of work, it is felt that the depot training program will be well on the way toward satisfactorily fulfilling its dual function of improving operating efficiency of the organization and creating better morale among the employees.

A Method for Segregating Test Items as to Discriminatory Power

JOHN C. KIDNEIGH

After the initial merit system examinations for county departments of public welfare in the State of Colorado were conducted in January, 1942, a study was undertaken to determine the discriminatory ability of the various questions included in the examinations. The method used, as outlined in this article, represents an attempt to find a suitable simple procedure that may be utilized by a merit system agency to get a rough measure of the discriminatory power of given test items in a merit system examination composed of multiple-choice type questions. It is the feeling of this writer that, although other more refined statistical methods of item analysis are desirable, the technical staff and amount of time required, with the corresponding cost involved, has kept many merit system agencies from undertaking any extensive study of their test items. This method therefore provides, it is hoped, a short and simple way to get some rough indication as to which items included in a given examination may have discriminatory power.

While there are several methods of item analysis, the immediate ends in view in this particular situation could best be served by conducting the analysis on the basis of criteria groups of competitors. In other words, how was each question answered by the superior candidates, the average candidates, and the inferior candidates? It was

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assumed that the superior candidates, referred to in this study as the "upper group," would be those participating in the examinations who achieved a place high enough on the final eligible register to be included in the upper 25 per cent on the final register; the average candidate, referred to in this study as the "middle group," was assumed to be the remaining 75 per cent of those candidates passing all parts of the examinations, and whose names appeared upon the final eligible registers. The inferior candidates, referred to in this study as the "lower group," was assumed to be those who had failed some part of the examination process, and whose names therefore did not appear on the final eligible registers. It is recognized that this method results in dividing the total number of competitors into three unequal groups. It is also recognized that this division of the competing candidates is arbitrary; however, it conforms to the principle of division desired for purposes of this study, and is convenient for tabulating purposes. Table I shows the distribution of competitors in each of the criteria groups in four examinations studied. As will be noted, the upper group consisted of 19.4 per cent, the middle group 57.4 per cent, and the lower group 23.2 per cent of the competitors' papers included in this study.

STANDARD FOR CLASSIFYING ITEMS

In order to analyze the examinations it was felt that some standard must be adopted to which the question items could be compared for purposes of classifying items into discriminatory types. The above-men-

TABLE I. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF COMPETITORS IN EACH OF THE ESTABLISHED CRITERIA GROUPS IN FOUR EXAMINATIONS

EXAMINATION TITLE	TOTAL		UPPER GROUP		MIDDLE GROUP		LOWER GROUP	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Visitor	522	100.0	98	18.8	291	55.7	133	25.5
Junior Case Worker	123	100.0	30	24.4	88	71.5	5	4.1
Senior Case Worker (Class I)	67	100.0	16	23.9	46	68.7	5	7.4
County Director (Class II)	130	100.0	20	15.4	58	44.6	52	40.0
Total	842	100.0	164	19.4	483	57.4	195	23.2

tioned method of segregating the competitors into three criteria groups was adopted because it was felt that high scores and hence high rank upon the final eligible register achieved through both written examination scores, rating of training and experience, and oral examinations, produced the best qualified candidates. Conversely, it was felt that low scores in these several parts indicated candidates of least competence. The four examinations selected for purposes of this study were chosen because they constitute the basic welfare worker positions in public welfare in county welfare service in Colorado. The examinations consisted of multiple-choice type items, each containing a premise or a question, followed by five answers, one of which was considered correct.

A tabulation sheet for each item in each examination was prepared and the answers given by the candidates in each of the previously mentioned criteria groups were tabulated to determine which of the five multiple choices was selected by each candidate in answering the particular question in each of the three criteria groups of candidates. After the completion of this tabulation, the percentage of competitors in each group giving the correct answers was computed. The percentage of the total number of competitors who had given the correct answers was also computed. When the percentage for each group in these examinations was computed, the items were classified into three broad types. These were subsequently sub-divided so as to make a total of eight sub-types of questions. The classification and definition of item types are as follows:

Discriminatory Items

A. Items showing *marked discrimination*, defined as answered correctly by 60 per cent or more of the upper group, 50 per cent or more of the middle group, and 50 per cent or less of the lower group, provided that there was at least a 20 per cent difference between the upper and the lower groups.

B. Items that are *discriminating*, defined as those answered correctly by 60 per cent or more of the upper group, 60 per cent or more of the middle group, and 60 per cent or less of the lower group, provided that there was at least a 20 per cent difference between the upper and the lower groups.

C. Items having *discriminating value* but *easy* to answer, defined as those answered correctly by 60 per cent or more of the lower group, provided that there was at least 20 per cent difference between the upper and the lower groups.

D. Items having *discriminating value* but *hard* to answer, defined as those answered correctly by less than 60 per cent of the upper group, provided that there was at least 20 per cent difference between the upper and lower groups.

Non-Discriminatory Items

These are defined as items in which there is no appreciable difference, or less than 20 per cent difference in the percentage of right answers between the upper and lower groups. They are divided as follows:

E. *Easy items.* Those in which 70 per cent or more of the total number taking the examination answered the item correctly.

F. *Medium hard items.* Those in which from 50 to 70 per cent of the total taking the examination answered the item correctly.

G. *Hard items.* Those in which less than 50 per cent of the total number of persons taking the examination answered the item correctly.

Unsuitable Items

H. These are defined as items wherein there is reversed discrimination, i.e., the lower group answered the item correctly a higher percentage of times than the upper group.

WHEN all the individual items in each of the examinations were classified into one of the foregoing eight types, the percentage of the total items falling in each

of these types was computed. For example, in the tabulation classifying item types found in the Visitor examination, it was found that there were 18 items, or 17.1 per cent of the total number of items included in that examination, classified as "A" type; there were 14 items, or 13.3 per cent of the total classified as "B" type; and so on.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

TABLE II, included herewith, shows the number and percentages of types of items in each examination in the study, the items being classified under the alphabetical designation used in the foregoing description of item types. For example, it will be noted that, of the 105 items in the visitor examination, 64, or 60.9 per cent show discriminatory value ("A," "B," "C," and "D" type items). Thirty-eight, or 36.2 per cent, were non-discriminatory ("E," "F," and "G" types), and 3, or 2.9 per cent were unsuitable ("H" type) items.

In view of the fact that experience in the creation of written examination question items for social workers of the Visitor class has not been very extensive, it seems fairly significant that the initial examination in Colorado should have contained a percentage of discriminatory items as high as 60.9 per cent. It is also gratifying to note that only 2.9 per cent of the items in the Visitor examination were unsuitable. Since it is usually the policy of examiners to include in all examinations a certain number of easy, non-discriminatory items for psychological purposes, to keep the competitor from too great discouragement during the examination process, and to stimulate him to complete the examination for which he is entered, the inclusion of the 31 items classified as "E" items conforms to acceptable test construction procedure. However, if it had been possible to select only items of discriminatory value, valid results could have been achieved by using only 60 per cent of the items that appeared in the actual examinations.

Further reference to Table II indicates

that, in the examination for Junior Case Worker, there was a total of 135 items, of which 71, or 52.6 per cent had discriminatory power; 63, or 46.7 per cent were non-discriminatory; and only 1, or 0.7 per cent was unsuitable. It should be mentioned that admission to the Visitor examination required only college graduation or its equivalent, whereas candidates admitted to the Junior Case Worker examination were required to have at least a minimum of two-thirds of a year of graduate study. In view of the fact that the Visitor and Junior Case Worker examinations overlapped except for 30 items, it seems relatively clear that the latter examination was made up of items in the main too easy for the competing candidates, and lacked the power to discriminate between Junior Case Worker candidates as adequately as it did among Visitor candidates.

It will also be noted that, in the examination for Senior Case Worker, there were 195 items, of which 76, or 39.1 per cent had discriminatory power, 109, or 55.8 per cent were non-discriminatory, and 10, or 5.1 per cent were unsuitable. The Senior Case Worker examination overlapped the Visitor and Junior Case Worker examination in 135 of the 195 questions included. The minimum qualifications established for admission to the Senior Case Worker examination required at least 55 quarter hours of graduate study in an approved school of social work.

Although there were nearly 40 per cent of the items included in the examination for Senior Case Worker which had discriminatory power, the analysis points to the conclusion that the examination was on the whole too easy for the candidates, and that the relatively higher competence of this group as compared with the Visitor and Junior Case Worker groups suggests a lesser overlapping of examination question items between these classes than was the case in this examination.

Finally, it will be observed that, in the examination for County Director, there

TABLE II. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF EIGHT TYPES OF ITEMS IN EACH OF FOUR EXAMINATIONS

TYPE OF ITEM	VISITOR		JUNIOR CASE WORKER		SENIOR CASE WORKER I		COUNTY DIRECTOR II	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<i>Discriminatory Items:</i>								
TYPE A	18	17.1	38	28.2	33	17.0	29	12.9
TYPE B	14	13.3	11	8.1	0	0.0	33	14.7
TYPE C	27	25.7	18	13.3	36	18.5	53	23.6
TYPE D	5	4.8	4	3.0	7	3.6	3	1.3
Total	64	60.9	71	52.6	76	39.1	118	52.5
<i>Non-Discriminatory Items:</i>								
TYPE E	31	29.5	55	40.7	94	48.2	95	42.2
TYPE F	4	3.8	4	3.0	9	4.6	5	2.2
TYPE G	3	2.9	4	3.0	6	3.0	7	3.1
Total	38	36.2	63	46.7	109	55.8	107	47.5
<i>Unsuitable Items:</i>								
TYPE H	3	2.9	1	0.7	10	5.1	0	0.0
Total, All Types of Item	105	100.0	135	100.0	195	100.0	225	100.0

were 225 question items, of which 118 or 52.5 per cent were discriminatory, 107, or 47.5 per cent were non-discriminatory, and that no unsuitable items were included.

It is gratifying to note that the percentage of unsuitable question items in all the examinations analyzed was very low. This does not imply that items classified as unsuitable in this analysis are actually unsuitable for use in any particular one of the four examinations analyzed. Since there was such an overlapping of questions in the examinations of these four classes, it was found that a particular item might be unsuitable for one of these examinations, while at the same time it was classified under one of the other types of item for a different examination. It is recognized, of course, that one item analysis such as this study represents is not sufficient evidence to classify a particular item as being unsuitable, or on the other extreme, most satisfactory. It does seem, however, that if subsequent analyses of the same items indicate them as being unsuitable, they should either be eliminated from future examinations for the particular class of position involved or should be so revised as to correct their weakness.

Since this series of examinations was the first given under the Merit System program in the State of Colorado, it is not to be expected that a perfect examination could be compiled. The items used in these examina-

tions were gathered from authoritative sources, and were subjected to review by competent technical consultants. The examinations were therefore made up of items which, according to the best consultant experts available, were proper for the class of position involved. There was, however, little or no information of a statistical nature available to the Merit System Supervisor to make a determination as to which items should be included in these examinations. When it is considered that this first examination constituted a pioneer step, it is gratifying to note the relatively high percentage of discriminatory items and the relatively low percentage of unsuitable items.

DISCRIMINATORY AND NON-DISCRIMINATORY ITEMS

THE question naturally arises, "What kind of item, generally speaking, proved to be discriminatory; what kind of item proved to be non-discriminatory; and what kind of item proved to be unsuitable?" No generalization can be made in answer on these points by considering all of the four examinations analyzed together, for it was found that a number of items that were included in two or more of the examinations, while showing discriminatory power for one position, were classified under one of the non-discriminatory heads in the case of another examination.

For the position of Visitor, it seems fairly clear that the kind of items which are discriminatory are those which deal with specific knowledges and techniques in social case work, knowledge of social and economic problems, and some of the questions pertaining to welfare laws.¹ The items in the Visitor examination which seem to lack discrimination were those pertaining to ideas which have rather common and wide acceptance. An example of this latter type of item is the following:

Information given by a client to a visitor should always be considered:

- (1) *public property;*
- (2) *irrelevant;*
- (3) *statistically significant;*
- (4) *confidential;*
- (5) *fictitious.*

The few unsuitable items which were included in the Visitor examination were those requiring specific knowledge, i.e., where two or more of the multiple choices seemed to give a common-sense answer to the question or premise, but only one of which was technically correct.

In the Junior Case Worker examination somewhat the same generalization concerning discriminatory and non-discriminatory types of items could be made as was the case in the Visitor examination, except that a number of items which were classified under the "A" type for Visitor fell under the "B" type for Junior Case Worker. This would indicate that on the whole these questions were easier for the Junior Case Worker group, although still retaining discriminatory power.

In connection with the Senior Case Worker examination, it was found that most

¹ It occurs to the writer that it would be an interesting subject for further study to determine whether or not the candidates writing the Visitor examination who possessed an adequate undergraduate background in social sciences, together with some graduate training in social work, had an advantage over other competing candidates to such an extent that they found it possible to answer correctly a higher percentage of the discriminatory items than candidates who did not have a similar educational background.

of the items which were non-discriminatory for Visitor and Junior Case Worker were also non-discriminatory for Senior Case Worker candidates. Furthermore, a rather sizeable group of items which were discriminatory for Junior Case Worker and Visitor candidates were non-discriminatory for Senior Case Worker candidates. It was found generally that the kinds of items which were discriminatory in the Visitor examination, but were not discriminatory in the Senior Case Worker examination, were items which dealt with understanding the client-worker relationship. In other words, the upper group of Visitors selected the right answer a high percentage of times in questions involving knowledge or experience in dealing with relief clients, but the lower group did not.

This same generalization might also be made concerning those items involving principles of understanding the client viewpoint, or of having a professionally adequate attitude toward the client-worker relationship. On the other hand, almost all of the candidates entered for the Senior Case Worker examination selected the right answer in items of this sort. This may have been due to the professional training in this specific area of knowledge that the Senior Case Worker group was required to have as a prerequisite for admission to the examination for the class.

There were also a few items which were discriminatory in the Visitor examination but non-discriminatory in the Senior Case Worker examination, dealing with specific knowledges connected with Colorado Welfare laws and the provisions of the Social Security Act as they pertain to eligibility requirements, or to facts about the Social Security Board or the Public Welfare Department. This seems to indicate that a group of candidates possessing a rather high degree of professional training are all able to select the right answer in a majority of items, although these items still retain a high degree of discriminatory power in the lower classes. There can be no question but that the ex-

amination for Senior Case Worker was much too easy for the group that participated therein, and there can be no doubt but that items with a higher degree of difficulty will be required in future examinations for this class of position.

In connection with the examination for County Director it was found that many items which were discriminatory for a lower class were also effective in the County Director examination. There were some items, however, which had discriminatory power in the lower class that were not discriminatory for the County Director candidates. The items which were discriminatory in the lower classes but were non-discriminatory in the County Director examination were primarily questions dealing with Colorado Welfare laws or with provisions of the Social Security Act. There were also a few items in this category which dealt with general overall community or agency planning. It seems therefore that the upper, but not the lower, group of candidates entered for the Visitor examination could answer these questions dealing with law satisfactorily, but that most of the candidates for County Director, in the upper and lower groups alike, were able to answer these questions satisfactorily.

It further appears that items pertaining to administration and supervision were the most effective and discriminating questions in the County Director examination, and that questions pertaining to general social and economic problems were in the main almost as effective, and had discriminatory power.

IN REVIEWING the items classified as non-discriminatory for all of the four examinations, it appears that items of an elementary type, dealing with interviewing and general information, seem to lack discriminatory power, whether placed in one examination or another. On the other hand, items dealing with specific knowledges and skills pertaining directly to the duties of the position appear in general to possess the highest discriminatory power.

These findings point to the conclusion that the examination did distinguish between candidates who have a narrow knowledge of factual information and those who possess a broad basic knowledge of problems in the general social welfare field.

THE implication for the merit system agency in connection with the analysis of these items may be summarized as follows:

1. More difficult items should be included in future examinations in the higher classes, particularly for Senior Case Worker. The relative difficulty of this examination for that class was too low.
2. There was not a sufficient number of discriminatory items in certain of the fields of knowledges included in the several examinations being analyzed. This was particularly true in the field of individual and community health problems and in the field of interviewing and social case work. It is recognized that it is difficult to reduce the skills of case work to objective-type items; however, certain questions in that area seem to possess satisfactory discriminatory power, and this would suggest that further research and item preparation in this field would make possible a greater store of desirable items.
3. If suitable discriminatory items can be included in future examinations, and the factor of reliability is adequately safeguarded, the length of the examination can be reduced without affecting the validity of the examination results.
4. The analysis tends to indicate that effective written examinations for these particular positions in public welfare should be composed principally of carefully selected items dealing with the specific duties of the position, or with specific information related to the job. Multiple-choice items containing carefully selected material from the social sciences, home economics, individual and community health, interviewing, public welfare laws, and similar subjects, appear to possess the highest discriminatory value.

Regional Personnel Office Relationships

JAMES O. YARGER

THE prime purpose of a regional personnel office is to serve as the personnel agency for a regional office of a federal department, authority, or other establishment. For the purposes of this article, a regional personnel office may be thought of as the agency which performs classification, compensation, recruitment, transactions, training, and other personnel staff services for the line or operating staff of the federal region.

Obviously, the basic methods commonly recognized and applied in personnel agencies on all levels of government are used in a regional personnel office; however, the emphasis and mode of application at the regional level are somewhat unique. Because of this unique application of standard procedures and the fact that a number of regional personnel offices are in the process of being organized, it is believed that an article such as this may prove helpful to those who are actually engaged in the work of organizing and staffing such personnel agencies.

It is also believed that the development of regional personnel offices will be of general interest to personnel technicians and administrators in general. For one thing, these regional offices must operate within a complex pattern of relationships, both internal and external, that has few counterparts elsewhere in government. Again, the establishment of regional offices has given rise to problems of organization, staffing, and training that are of substantial proportions.

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Finally, the regionalization of departmental personnel administration in the federal service has led to some significant changes in the over-all pattern of the federal personnel program.

EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL RELATIONSHIPS

IN OPERATING a modern personnel program at the regional level of the federal service it is important to bear in mind the complex pattern of relationships between the regional personnel office and other units with which it comes in contact. These relationships differ in nature and scope at the various levels of operation, and their combined influence on the day-to-day functioning of the regional personnel office is of considerable moment. Considered from the viewpoint of the organizational hierarchy, the principal areas of relationship are as follows:

1. The relationship between the federal Civil Service Commission and the central personnel office of the operating agency.
2. The relationship between the agency's central personnel office and the regional personnel office.
3. The relationship between the regional personnel office and the over-all administrative machinery of the region.
4. The relationship between the regional personnel office and the field office units throughout the regional area.
5. The relationship between the regional personnel office and other governmental and non-governmental agencies operating in the same geographical area.

The major aspects of these five relation-

ships will be described hereafter to serve as a background for the subsequent discussion concerning the regional personnel office itself.

BAΣΙCALLY, the federal Civil Service Commission is responsible for establishing over-all policies for both the field service and the departmental service. Since the classification plan was extended to the field service in January, 1943, the Civil Service Commission possesses the same amount of authority over positions in the field as it does over departmental positions in Washington.

Civil Service Commission policies for classifying positions and for handling personnel transactions in the field are formulated in cooperation with departmental personnel officers acting through the Council of Personnel Administration in Washington. In this manner the Commission establishes standards for the classification of positions, decides the extent to which field transactions should be cleared through the Commission's regional offices, and develops procedures for the processing of personnel actions. In delegating appointing authority to a regional director of the operating agency, it is necessary for the departmental personnel office to work in close harmony with the Civil Service Commission. This procedure for departmental delegation of authority to the region should be in harmony with the delegation of authority from the Civil Service Commission to its own regional office.

The second area of relationships concerns the central personnel office of the department. The regional personnel office of the operating department is technically responsible for interpreting and administering the personnel policies developed by its central office. Most central personnel agencies prepare directives, personnel regulations, and from time to time issue specific instructions on policy questions. The regional personnel officer is called upon to apply these general policies and instructions to

meet the specific needs of his particular region. Likewise, the central personnel office calls upon the region for suggestions for improvements or major changes in policies and procedures, in order that the viewpoints of the field and responsible regional administrative officials may be placed effectively before the central personnel office in Washington.

THE third aspect of relationship is principally at the regional level. At that level, the regional personnel office through its personnel officer is administratively responsible to the regional director or other top administrative official of the region. The agency is responsible both in a line and a staff capacity for advising on the establishment of regional personnel policies, and for interpreting them to operating officials and employees. The relationship of the regional personnel office to operating officials (the section and division heads in the region) is similar to that which exists between any central personnel office and operating officials. This relationship is not unlike the relationship which exists in a county government between the county personnel officer and the highway commissioner, or on the state level between the personnel director and the secretary of state.

A regional personnel office is no exception to the rule that successful personnel administration depends on smooth working relationships with operating officials. This requires that the personnel officer and his staff make a positive attempt to gain an understanding and appreciation of the operating official's problems. One way to achieve this is by expeditious handling of personnel transactions, especially those in which the operating official desires speedy action in order to meet emergency workload requirements. Thus, the regional personnel office has a dual role, exerting every effort to cut red tape and to be of assistance to operating officials while at the same time it obtains compliance with federal personnel laws and regulations.

APART from its relationship with the over-all administrative machinery of the region, the regional personnel office has a fourth element with which to deal—its relations with the field units within the region. The regional personnel office is responsible for giving prompt and efficient technical personnel service to field officials throughout the area. This relationship varies from agency to agency. Some regional offices merely process the personnel papers for a sub-office; others render field recruiting services by sending examiners to assist an operating official to recruit candidates. This latter activity involves contacting and interviewing candidates and establishing the required working relationships with the Civil Service Commission representative, with representatives of the Employment Service, and with other manpower sources within the immediate area. Again, in some instances, departments delegate to the field appointing responsibility up to certain levels, such as the \$2000 salary level. Where this is the case, the regional personnel office is responsible for establishing procedures for processing personnel actions and for advising appointing officials in personnel procedures and techniques to improve the caliber of their appointments.

THE final aspect of regional personnel office relationships, its dealings with other agencies in the area, is by no means the least important. The regional personnel office has approximately the same technical, administrative, and community relationships as the county or the city personnel office. Since the federal Civil Service Commission is regionalized, the operating department's regional personnel officer is responsible for developing and maintaining effective working relationships with the Commission. In this particular respect, he may be thought of as serving in the capacity of a personnel officer of a state department in his relationship to the state civil service commission. More specifically, to point out the complexity of relationships, it will be noticed that

this is a complete reversal of the previously described relationship between the regional personnel office and the regional office of its own department.

In this connection, it is necessary to determine what services the regional office of the Civil Service Commission is willing to render. For example, how far will the agency be permitted to go in direct or indirect recruiting activities? Shall promotional examinations be given? If they are considered desirable (and modern personnel practice indicates that they are desirable in many instances), shall the civil service regional office or the personnel office of the operating department prepare and administer the examination program?

Again, since the responsibility for handling decentralized personnel services on the federal level is not unified in one agency, the regional personnel office must develop and maintain effective relationships with representatives of the United States Employment Service and with the War Manpower Commission. Finally, it is necessary for the personnel officer to be familiar with the problems of state, county, and municipal personnel agencies within his region, for the employment problems of a regional personnel officer in a particular city or county are usually identical to those of the local personnel agencies.

ORGANIZING AND STAFFING THE PERSONNEL OFFICE

IT IS generally recognized that the personnel officer in any governmental agency should report directly to top management and that he should be kept informed as to the general over-all policies of the organization. This statement applies equally to regional personnel offices. The personnel officer usually reports either to the director of the region or to a top administrative official who may have charge of staff services such as personnel, budgeting, accounting, and purchasing.

The actual organizational structure of the personnel office will depend to a consider-

able extent upon the number of positions serviced and upon the degree to which a well-rounded personnel program is administered. If the personnel office is to service a thousand or more employees, it is necessary to staff the unit with experienced persons, or at least persons who are willing and have the ability to master readily the methodology of classification, recruitment, transactions, and training. In a smaller office, these functions may be combined in one or two positions.

Regardless of the type of organization adopted, however, it is important to establish a simple and clear-cut procedure for the processing of personnel actions. By doing this, approximately 75 per cent of the personnel actions and problems become routine, thus freeing the technical staff of the personnel office to work on the difficult technical and administrative problems. Unless a definite procedure is established for processing personnel transactions, low grade technical work, delay, and unnecessary friction with operating officials are the disastrous results.

THE regional personnel officer is necessarily responsible for training a competent staff in order to administer a first-class personnel program. This responsibility is especially pronounced because of the lack of available experienced personnel technicians. The rapid increase in the number of regional personnel offices has led to a great influx of personnel technicians into regional personnel positions. While many have had technical and administrative experience in other personnel agencies, there remains a large number who are quite inexperienced in personnel administration. These latter have been selected primarily because their general background and experience make them readily adaptable for personnel work.

These new employees usually lack training in the basic techniques of the personnel field as a whole, in the personnel rules and regulations of the federal government, and

in the operating problems of the department itself. Thus, it is necessary that the training program be built around these three basic phases of personnel administration. Recruits to the field must first be schooled in the immediate duties which they are called upon to perform. This involves a study of the background of the organization and of the clerical and technical procedures for processing personnel actions. At the same time, or at a later date, it is essential that newcomers to the field be given an opportunity to acquire a thorough understanding and knowledge of the federal personnel rules and regulations and of the personnel field as a whole.

To meet the needs of this situation, the Council of Personnel Administration has sponsored a number of federal Personnel Management Conferences for the training of personnel officers in various areas throughout the country. The first conference was held in Chicago in September, 1942. Similar conferences are in the process of being held at other points to make it possible for all personnel officers to attend.

ONE of the major results of the Chicago Personnel Management Conference was an agreement on the need for some permanent medium for the interchange of ideas among regional personnel officers. A resolution was adopted suggesting the establishment of regional councils of personnel administration in centers where large numbers of regional offices are located. This resolution was later endorsed by the Council of Personnel Administration in Washington. Since the Chicago meeting, regional personnel councils have been, or are in the process of being, established in Chicago, Cleveland, Boston, New York City, and Atlanta, and the functioning of these regional councils has had a considerable influence on the operations of the regional personnel offices in the several centers.

The aims of these several councils are two-fold: to promote the interchange of ideas among regional personnel officers, and

between the regional councils and the Council of Personnel Administration in Washington. Regional councils are now functioning on a satisfactory basis, both from the viewpoint of the regional councils and from that of the parent body in Washington. This regionalization of the Council of Personnel Administration may be one of the outstanding developments in the field of federal personnel administration in the last year.

CONCLUSION

SINCE the regional personnel office, as discussed in this article, is primarily an outgrowth of war emergency conditions, it

is too early to draw any conclusions as to the effect of this development on public personnel administration from a long range point of view. However, it may be said that the regional personnel office is the hub of personnel services supplied to the field, especially in departments that have been greatly decentralized. The complexity of relationships with departmental personnel offices, regional directors, and the Civil Service Commission increase the administrative problems of the regional personnel officer, yet they offer an intriguing challenge to establish a progressive personnel program.

COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Covering in of Incumbents—Village Police—Constitutionality of New York Statute—Probable Effect on General Legislative Plan for Extension of Civil Service Law to Counties and Other Municipal Services. The New York Court of Appeals recently upheld the "covering in" provisions of a special statute adopted in 1940 amending the New York State village law, whereby village policemen employed at the time the state civil service rules were extended to include the village service for the police department of such village under the terms of the special act were permitted to "continue to hold their positions without further examination," and their dismissal was permitted only after written charges after a hearing. (*Ricker v. Village of Hempstead*, 47 N. E. [2d] 417.)

The case is of particular significance because of the recent action of the New York legislature in extending the civil service law to include over 250,000 positions in the counties, towns, villages and other local jurisdictions theretofore not operating under the civil service rules.

The legislative commission which made a study of the extension of the civil service provision of the constitution to the counties, towns, villages and other local jurisdictions to which the civil service rules had not been extended prior to the adoption of the Fite Law of 1941, in discussing the problem of "covering in" employees of the local jurisdictions without requirement of competitive examination, stated:

While it is invariably practicable to staff a newly created governmental agency from civil service lists, entirely different aspects of practicability are involved

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when civil service administration is extended to governmental or private units which already have a complete and experienced staff of employees.

A careful review of the decisions of the courts with respect to this question will be found in an article written by H. Eliot Kaplan, a member of our Commission, in the January 1940 edition of *Legal Notes on Local Government*, published by the Section of Municipal Law, American Bar Association.

One method of accomplishing this result is exemplified by Chapter 927 of the Laws of 1939, which prescribes the procedure to be followed when employees of privately owned transit systems come under the jurisdiction of the City of New York, after unification of the subway system.

The Commission is of the opinion that the Civil Service Law and rules can be extended to local units of government in New York State, by this or some similar method which will lawfully permit present employees to continue in their positions. Vacancies that may occur after extension would then be filled in the manner prescribed by the Civil Service Law.

The conclusion reached by the Fite Commission, it appears now, was based on sound reasoning, or perhaps was only prophecy. In any event, it appears that the employees of counties, towns, villages and school districts covered into competitive positions without requirement of competitive examination, as provided by the Fite Law, are safe from constitutional attack.

The Ricker case, recently decided, involved a provision in the village law adopted in 1940, covering into the competitive class policemen of villages without further examination. The statute reads:

Village policemen who are employed at the time this act, as hereby amended, takes effect, and who were employed at the time the rules of the state civil service commission were extended to the police department of the village in which they are employed, shall continue to hold their positions without further examination and shall be removed only upon compliance with the provisions of section one hundred eighty-eight-f of this chapter. (Chap. 698, Laws of 1940.)¹

¹ Section 188-f provides that, except in situations not here under consideration, no member of a village police force shall be removed until written charges against him have been heard.

The proceeding in the case mentioned called upon the court to determine the constitutional validity of the exemption from examination so declared.

The petitioner joined the police force of the Village of Hempstead in 1918. He was given the rank of sergeant and later lieutenant, and was finally made chief of police in October, 1935. He had never been required to take a competitive examination for any of these positions. On April 7, 1941, the trustees of the Village summarily removed him from his position as chief of police. Petitioner claimed that he could not be removed without written charges and a hearing as provided by the village law. The Village contended that the petitioner, never having been appointed after competitive examination, could be removed without charges or a hearing, and that the amendment of 1940 which sought to cover in village policemen without civil service examination was unconstitutional.

The Court of Appeals upheld the contention of the petitioner, sustaining the constitutionality of the 1940 law covering in village policemen without examination, and concluded that such policemen may not be removed except after written charges and a hearing. The court pointed out that the village policemen had for a long time been appointed without civil service tests; that not until 1939 did the state civil service commission extend its rules to the village police departments; that in effect the position of village policeman up to 1939 (except for such jurisdictions as had already been included under civil service rules) was in effect within the exempt class of the civil service because up to that time (1939) the state commission had found it ". . . impracticable to order competitive examinations in that field."

Andresen v. Rice, 277 N. Y. 271, 14 N. E. (2d) 65, was distinguished on the ground that in that case the legislature had "made an unwarranted attempt permanently to exempt the entire membership of the State Police from competitive examinations irrespective of the practicability thereof. The present case is closer to the implications of *Matter of Fornara v. Schroeder*, 261 N. Y. 363, 185 N. E. 498, where this court gave effect to a finding by civil service authorities of the impracticability at one time of competitive examination as a test of fitness for the appointment of a superintendent

of street cleaning though no expressed legislative policy had indorsed such an exemption."

Continuing, the court stated:

The problem faced by the commission stretched out to all the civil divisions of the state. Villages, of course, were not among the larger and more complex units of government in which the civil service needs were the most pressing. (*Matter of Madden v. Reary*, 284 N. Y. 418.) Not only so, but the immediateness of life in small communities was perhaps an adequate temporary guaranty against unfit appointments to a local police force. There is good reason, then, why we should not take it on ourselves to denounce the course adopted by the Commission as palpably arbitrary or an outright abuse. The reports of the Commission were matter of public record and furnished a basis for action by the legislature. Against this background, the foregoing "covering in" provision of section 188-1 cannot be said to have been such a clear usurpation by the legislature of prohibited power as must be found before a statute can be pronounced unconstitutional and void. Thus regarded, the above words of section 188-1 are a valid enactment, and so we here adjudge.

The pattern of the Fite Law, so far as it applied to the status of incumbents of positions in local jurisdictions and their continuance in the service without competitive examinations, followed closely similar provisions in the Wicks Act of 1939, authorizing the inclusion in the New York City civil service without competitive examination of employees of the private transit companies which were taken over by the city under unification of the subway systems. The constitutionality of that provision of the Wicks Act was under attack in an earlier case (*Felder v. Fullen*, 289 N. Y. 118). The court held that the legislature could, under the circumstances of unification of the transit systems in New York City, which necessitated taking over the employees of the private companies as well as the physical equipment by the city, continue the employees of the private companies in the city civil service without competitive examination. It upheld the constitutionality of the Wicks Law.

It is reasonably safe to assume, therefore, in the light of the decisions and opinions in the *Ricker* and *Felder* cases, that the provisions of the Fite Law authorizing the covering-in of incumbents of positions in the counties, towns and villages without further examination is valid and is now clearly beyond constitutional attack.

Scope of Civil Service Laws—New Jersey—Court Clerks. Stating the salutary principle that "widest range is given to the applicability of our civil service law," the New Jersey

Supreme Court ruled that the law applies to the appointment of a clerk to a Criminal Judicial District Court. (*Martini v. Civil Service Commission*, 30 Atl. [2d] 569 [N. J.].) A special statute authorizes each judge of a criminal judicial district court to appoint a clerk to hold office during good behavior, and he is removable only for cause after an opportunity to be heard. The court noted that the statute was silent on the question of applicability of the civil service statute. The two statutes were treated in *pari materia*, and the civil service statute was applied on the basic theory that the "essential inquiry" for the application of the civil service law "is whether the incumbent is in the paid service of the state. Concededly prosecutor is a state officer, in the 'state's service'"

The court pointed out that the state civil service commission always treated the position as subject to civil service provisions. "The legislature with knowledge of this uniform construction did nothing to indicate its disapproval thereof. . . . We, too, adopt such contemporaneous construction given to it."

(Editor's Note. To the same effect, see *O'Kelly v. Hill*, 27 N. E. [2d] 509.)

Examinations—Administrative Discretion—Laches in Seeking Relief. The propriety of the examination given by the New York State Civil Service Commission for the position of Motor Vehicle Responsibility Adjudicator, wherein the flexible passing grade method was used, has been sustained in *Dainier v. Reavy*, 39 N. Y. S. (2d) 269. The court, in denying an application by unsuccessful candidates for an order setting aside the resulting eligible list, said: "Petitioners are plainly guilty of laches and bad faith in waiting until after the results of the examination had been announced to voice their objections. It was incumbent on them to act promptly to enforce any alleged rights. An affirmative duty rested upon them in this respect It would not have been difficult for them to have entered any objections to the proposed passing grade, and the type and subjects of the examination, prior to the examination."

The court pointed out that the examination ". . . was eminently fair, proper and legal. Respondents are invested with discretion to select such questions and subjects as they deem

relevant and proper, and however poorly selected and constructed such questions may be, in the absence of showing an abuse of discretion, this Court will not interfere and substitute his opinion for that of the Civil Service Commission."

The flexible passing grade method "does not in any manner discriminate against petitioners. They had just as fair a chance to pass as any other candidate."

Promotional Examinations—Right to Combine Original and Promotional Examinations. In *People ex rel Killeen v. Geary*, 47 N. E. (2d) 102 (Ill.), the Court upheld the right of a civil service commission to conduct an original entrance examination simultaneously with a promotional examination, provided that appointments are not made from the list resulting from the original examination until all those passing the promotional test are appointed. The state civil service statute provides that, wherever practicable, "vacancies shall be filled by promotion." Pursuant to this statutory direction, the city civil service commission promulgated a rule providing for promotional examinations. Said the court: "While the rule was not literally followed, we think it was not violated even if we assume there were two examinations held, one designated 'original' and the other 'promotional' for the reason that proper notice was given that a promotional examination would be held and all of those persons who were eligible to take such examination, and desired to do so, were permitted to take the examination and those that passed the promotional examination were certified and appointed to the vacancies. It was not until after those who had successfully passed the promotional examination were appointed . . . that the others who took and passed the 'original' examination were appointed to some of the remaining vacancies."

The Court also ruled that the plaintiffs were guilty of laches in bringing this mandamus action, to cancel the eligible lists resulting from the examinations, twenty months after the examinations were given.

Grading—Modification of Grades—Necessity for Approval of State Commission. The New York Civil Service Law provides that rules and regulations of city commissions, "and any

subsequent modification thereof, . . . shall be valid and take effect only after a public hearing . . . and upon the approval of the mayor . . . and of the State Civil Service Commission." In *Burri v. Kern*, 39 N. Y. S. (2d) 640 (Special Term), it was held that a resolution of the New York City Civil Service Commission changing the grading system of public health nurses as established by a prior resolution, constituted a "modification" of a local rule within the meaning of the statute. Consequently, since the modifying resolution had not been approved by the State Commission, it was held to have no force or effect. "Grading is essentially a civil service function. That function is not vested solely in local civil service commissions. The state has provided that the rules of local civil service commissions, and modifications thereof, will be ineffectual without confirmation by the State Commission. This requirement is basic and substantial."

The court also concluded that since grading was a civil service commission function, it was not within the province of the city Board of Estimate. Although the city charter permits the Board of Estimate to modify grades, this permission is granted "subject to the provisions . . . of the civil service law." Therefore, action of the Board of Estimate in approving the modification of grades could not cure the original defect in the modifying resolution, to wit, the absence of approval by the State Commission. ". . . where the Civil Service Law . . . delineates the process by which modification of a grade or classification may be accomplished, no action by the Board of Estimate may violate the statutory mandate."

Appointment—Failure to Comply with Statutory Prerequisites. In *Healey v. Jones*, 30 Atl. (2d) 732 (Pa.), the Pennsylvania Superior Court again ruled that no "permanent" civil service status is obtained by an employee where basic statutory requirements are not complied with. The court refused to reinstate a clerk summarily discharged from his position in a city clerk's office for the reason that, although the employee took and passed the required examination, no eligible list was posted by the civil service commission and no certification was issued as required by the statute. The court said: "Proper certification to council by the Commission and appointment from that cer-

tification, as well as the examination, are essentials under the Civil Service Act. . . . Any employment which in its inception violates these prerequisites is illegal, and council could not endow appellant with permanency of tenure by its own inaction or by the action of a representative of the municipality."

(*Editor's Note.* The court relied on *Detoro v. Pittston*, 344 Pa. 254, 25 Atl. (2d) 299, reported in the July, 1942, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, p. 239.)

Salaries—Right to Recover—Sufficiency of City Appropriation. The right of civil service employees to receive the salary provided for them by city ordinance, pursuant to statutory direction, cannot be defeated by the failure of the city to appropriate sufficient funds to pay such salary. "When the legislature provided for the employment of firemen for a continuous and indefinite period of time to be terminated for cause after proper notice and hearing, it cast a mandatory duty upon the common council to appropriate annually sufficient money to pay their salaries for the ensuing year as the same might be fixed by ordinance. This being (the city's) plain duty (the employees') right to recover does not depend upon the existence of an appropriation as otherwise such duty could be avoided and set to naught by a failure to perform it." (*City of Lafayette v. Keen*, 48 N. E. [2d] 63 [Ind.].)

(*Editor's Note.* Distinction must be made between a case where a statute provides for a specified salary to be paid by a municipality to employees in specified positions, and a case where the statute merely authorizes filling of positions. In the latter case the appointing authority generally may determine in his discretion (1) whether the position needs to be filled or may be left vacant, [*Tonkin v. Leary*, 256 N. Y. 510]; and (2) what salary may be paid within the salary classification range and budget appropriation [*Thorna v. City of New York*, 189 N. E. 470].)

Employment in Private Business—Absence of Statutory Prohibition—Municipal Authorities Have No General Power to Prohibit unless Private Employment Incompatible with Public Position. The Mayor of the City of New York directed the appointing officials of the city to prohibit city employees from engaging

in any private employment or carrying on any private business except in the case of employees earning less than \$1200 a year. Employees so engaged without permission of the department head were ordered to be dismissed from the service.

An employee of the New York City Department of Welfare challenged the regulation of the Department of Public Welfare adopted to carry out the order or decree of the Mayor, which sought to preclude the petitioner and all other employees of the department from engaging in any outside business activities even after office hours. (*Matter of Natilson v. Hodson*, 289 N. Y. 302; affirming 35 N. Y. S. [2d] 537.) (See *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1942, p. 327.)

The Court of Appeals affirmed the decision below on the ground that the regulation purported to be adopted by the department exceeded the powers conferred by the New York City Charter upon heads of departments. The lower court had held that there was no provision in the Charter or in the New York Civil Service Law which vested the Mayor "with power to remove civil service employees for the reason given herein. The Charter furthermore does not grant power to the Mayor or Board of Estimate to make civil service rules."

Lay-Off—Good Faith—No Necessity for Formal Hearing. A Florida civil service statute provided that where city commissioners find that there are an excessive number of employees in any city department, then such employees may be discharged and placed upon a preferred list. In *State ex rel McIver v. Swank*, 20 So. (2d) 605 (Fla.), it was held that a determination in good faith by the city commissioners that there were too many employees in the city police department was conclusive, even though such determination was not made as the result of any formal hearing. "As we construe . . . the statute, all that is required in such situation is that the Board of City Commissioners shall have knowledge of the facts at hand, and if from those facts they are of the official opinion that an excessive number of employees are employed . . . , the Board shall have the right to discharge them. Nothing is said . . . about a formal hearing to be held. . . ." The court contended that the Board's determination would have to be made in good faith, and it

did not find bad faith in the decided case.

The court also ruled that whatever rights accrued to those discharged employees who were placed on the preferred list pursuant to the statutory direction, were removed by the subsequent repeal of the civil service statute and its replacement by a new statute which abolished all positions held under the old statute. ". . . relators had no vested or contractual right to office or employment after the legislature had acted so as to cut them off."

Removal—Judicial Review—Scope of Mandamus. In *People ex rel Elmore v. Allman*, 46 N. E. (2d) 974 (Ill.), the Illinois Supreme Court restated the general principles applicable to the scope of judicial review in mandamus proceedings. Three policemen employed by the City of Chicago had been discharged by order of the city civil service commission, and they sought mandamus to compel reinstatement. The civil service statute permits an employee's discharge only "for cause, upon written charges and after an opportunity to be heard in his own defense." The court recited the facts concerning each of the three petitioners, and concluded that the question of their discharge was within the discretion of the civil service commission, and no clear, arbitrary abuse of discretion was shown. "The courts cannot, in a mandamus proceeding, invade the field which the statute has placed under the jurisdiction of the commission. The power to hear evidence and determine whether there has been a violation of rules is vested in the commission and it is not within the power of a court in a mandamus proceeding to review the evidence, and adjudge whether a writ of mandamus should issue to compel the commission to enter orders to meet the court's interpretation of the rules and evidence."

It also appeared that a rule of the commission required that the charges preferred against employees shall state the facts upon which the commission was passing. The commission had overruled a motion made by two of the plaintiffs for a more specific statement of the charges preferred against them, and the plaintiffs claimed that this action of the commission in overruling the motion was arbitrary, and could be corrected by mandamus. Said the court: "It is obvious the writ could not issue to compel the commission to act, for it had ruled on the

motion. Any other command to the commission which required action on its part would necessarily involve a direction as to the ruling it should make on the motion. . . . The overruling of the motion does not bring the case within that class where the action taken was such an evasion of duty as to amount in law to a refusal to perform a duty. At most the ruling on the motion was an error of judgment which cannot be corrected in an action of mandamus."

Removal "for Cause"—Absence of Charges and Hearing. In *Thompson v. Civil Service Commission of Prono City*, 134 Pac. (2d) 188 (Utah), the Supreme Court considered the question of what constitutes a removal "for cause" within the meaning of a civil service commission rule. The rule provided that when a chief of the city fire department is relieved from his position for reasons other than "for cause" he shall be returned to the position previously held by him in the civil service. The plaintiff had been appointed from his civil service position of fire captain to the position of fire chief, a position not covered by civil service regulations. The fire chief is appointed and is removable by the city commission. The plaintiff had been drinking while off duty, and was involved in a slight automobile accident, and for this reason the mayor requested his resignation. The plaintiff complied, and the city commission accepted the resignation. The issue was whether the plaintiff was discharged "for cause" so as not to be entitled to reinstatement to his former civil service position. The court held that the removal was not "for cause."

The Court pointed out that the statute permits removal of fire chiefs without charges or a hearing. This statute "was designed and intended to impute and imply a 'removal not for cause'. It cannot be used as a means of removing an official without charges and a hearing, and then permit the city or any of its agencies to thereafter proclaim, establish, or make record that the removal had been 'for cause' and thus 'smear one over' on the official without a hearing and an opportunity to be heard and make defense. The term 'remove for cause' means some cause concerning the fitness or ability of the incumbent to perform the duty imposed upon him. It means inefficiency, incompetency or other kindred disqualifica-

tions. . . . The courts have uniformly held that a removal for cause requires charges, notice and a hearing, and without such procedure, there can be no removal for cause."

Review of Provisions of Administrative Boards—Removal for Inefficiency—Inefficiency of Subordinate No Defense—Delegation of Authority to Referee to Hear and Report—Jurisdiction of Civil Service Board over Administrative Head of Department. While an administrative board's procedures in exercise of its power to remove appointive officers are quasi-judicial in nature, such boards do not lose their identity as administrative boards and become a court at any stage of the removal proceeding. (*State ex rel Rockwell v. State Board of Education*, 6 N. Y. [2d] 251.) The court held that an administrative board's proceeding for removal must not be tested by strict, regular rules prevailing in a court of law, but regulatory procedure must be considered along with the intrinsic nature of the administrative body and the fundamental purposes for which it is created.

The court sought to define the term "inefficiency" as denoting incapacity or incapability for performing the functions of the office or position. Any evidence tending to show incapability is relevant to the issue of inefficiency, the court held.

For example, where a public officer is found not properly performing his duties because of his inefficiency and incompetency in selecting subordinates or in checking the work of his subordinates, the department head can test his efficiency to continue in office based on such considerations. Nor can an administrative head escape the charge of inefficiency in performing the duties imposed on his department by pleading that the alleged inefficiency was that of a subordinate.

Incidentally, the court held that the state civil service law did not give the civil service board jurisdiction over removal of administrative heads of departments, notwithstanding that an amendment to the education law appeared to deprive the State Board of Education of such jurisdiction.

The petitioner challenged the authority of the Board of Education to delegate to a referee appointed by it to hear the charges and report his findings to the Board. The court held such

delegation to be lawful for the final determination was made by the Board, based on the evidence and report submitted by the referee. The Board did not have to hear the evidence itself.

Removal—Police Officer—Statutory Obligations Imposed on City—Effect of City's Inaction. A city that is subject to a tenure statute in employing and discharging policemen cannot evade the obligations imposed by the statute by a device of neglecting to establish the administrative board provided by the statute. (*City of Frankfort v. Easterly*, 46 N. E. [2d] 817 [Ind.].) The court in affirming a judgment allowed a recovery for loss of salary by a wrongfully discharged policeman. "Prior to his alleged discharge the appellee had . . . acquired tenure rights," stated the court, "and the city could not convert his employment into one at sufferance by its failure to set up the appropriate administrative agency. If the city was subject to the metropolitan police board act, as it claims, and it had no such board, the appellee was protected against discharge until a board with authority to discharge him was duly constituted. The appellee's rights could not be thwarted by the city's dereliction of duty."

In denying a petition for rehearing (47 N. E. [2d] 319 [Ind.]), the court pointed out that the wrongful discharge of the complaining petitioner was established by the fact that after his discharge the actual size of the force was increased. "If the size of the force had been decreased, there might be some merit in the contention that the position previously occupied by the appellee had been left vacant. Manifestly, however, all existing vacancies were filled when the board appointed more new policemen than had been discharged."

Removal—No Necessity for Trial—New York Rule. Under the New York Civil Service Law, only war veterans or volunteer firemen are entitled as a matter of statutory right to a hearing, at which they may be represented by counsel prior to removal. Other employees are validly removed if the general statutory provisions are obeyed (written notice of removal and reasons therefore must be given to the employee, together with a copy of the charges against him), and he is permitted a reasonable time for answering. In *Jennings v. Wilson*, 40 N. Y. S. (2d) 400 (Special Term), the court

upheld the removal of a New York City plumbing inspector where the statutory prerequisites were met, despite the contention of the employee that the removal provision violated the due process clause of the State Constitution. (Editor's Note. See *People ex rel Kennedy v. Brody*, 166 N. Y. 44, 48, for general rule in New York on removals of non-veterans in the civil service.)

Removal—Effective Time—Vacation Allowance as Extending Period of Employment. A resolution of a borough council recited that a police department employee shall be dismissed "effective June 30, 1941," and further "that an amount equal to a vacation allowance of two weeks be paid (to the employee) to July 15, 1941. . . ." The Pennsylvania Superior Court ruled that under this resolution the dismissal became effective on July 15, when the vacation allowance ended. Consequently, the dismissal was governed by the new civil service statute applicable to boroughs, approved by the Governor on June 5, 1941. The dismissal was therefore held improper, since it was not made in accord with the provisions of the new statute.

The employees' term of service under the resolution which attempted to remove him "did not end until July 15, 1941, at the termination of his vacation. 'Vacation' implies a recess or leave of absence, a respite or time of respite from active duty; an intermission or rest period during which activity or work is suspended. It is a period of freedom from duty but not the end of employment. . . . The borough's contention is that the resolution terminated the employment on June 30, 1941, and the vacation allowance was a mere gratuity. The obvious answer is that the members of the council were without authority to give away the borough's funds and the time of payment at the end of the vacation period denies that intent. . . . They carried (the employee) on the payroll as an employee of the borough until July 15 and then tendered him his regular semi-monthly salary. His employment under the resolution did not end until that date." (*In re Danher*, 30 Atl. [2d] 214 [Pa.].)

Removal—Restrictions on Court Review. Courts have no inherent power of removal of public officers or employees. They may only review proceedings resulting in removal from

office to ascertain whether such proceedings were held and determined in good faith and whether they were held in accordance with statutory requirements under which the proceedings were taken. The instant case is *State ex rel Brister v. Weston* 6 N. W. (2d) 648, involving the removal of members of the Board of Education. The same principle, however, generally applies to all other public officials and employees.

In *Civil Service Commission of Van Buren v. Matlock*, 168 S. W. (2d) 424, it was held that the legislature in authorizing city civil service commissions had the right to vest in the Circuit Courts power to review acts of the civil service commission arising either in original proceedings or on appeal from actions taken by the commission. Vesting of such authority in the courts is not unconstitutional as conferring administrative powers and duties on the court. The legislature has the power to determine the mode of procedure on appeals from the civil service commission to the court.

A special statute of Pennsylvania authorizes the payment by the state, municipalities and local subdivisions of the state to dependents of employees of such jurisdictions who are in the military service equal to one-half of the salary of the civil employee. The Supreme Court held this statute unconstitutional on the ground that the legislature had no authority to grant gratuities, bonuses, or special pension rights to dependents of public employees. It viewed the special law as discriminatory class legislation prohibited by the state constitution. The court could not condone the creation of a "special and favored class consisting of dependents of fewer than 2 per cent of the 750,000 Pennsylvanians now in the nation's war service." (*Kurtz v. City of Pittsburgh*, 31 Atl. [2d] 257.)

LEGAL NOTES

Agreement for Extra Pay Invalid. Members of the Fire Department of the City of Wichita Falls instituted an action to recover reasonable compensation for beneficial services rendered to the city in addition to what they claimed was in excess of the requirement of service of six day's work per week. It was established that

the city and the firemen had agreed on a pay schedule whereby each fireman was employed at a stipulated monthly salary and worked a part of every seventh day of the week. It was further established that such agreement had been fully performed. The city was held not liable for any pay for extra services performed by the firemen. (*City of Wichita Falls v. Long*, 167 S. W. [2d] 792 [Texas].)

Salary Differential for Employees in Military Service. In *Kogel v. McGoldrick*, 289 N. Y., 318, the Court of Appeals held that the provision in Section 245 of the New York State Military Law granting a state or municipal officer or employee who is a member of the Reserve Corps and who is ordered into active duty shall receive "such part of his salary or compensation of such officer or employee as equals the excess, if any, or such salary or compensation paid to him for the performance of such duty," his "salary or compensation as such officer or employee" includes the value of family maintenance which he receives in addition to his cash salary, but the "salary or compensation paid to him for the performance of such duty" includes only the regular "pay" and does not include "allowances" received in substitution for subsistence, quarters and like military essentials which are usually supplied by the government.

Lay-Off for Reasons of Economy. "The power to suspend or lay off public officials or employees for reasons of economy is not to be denied notwithstanding statutory or charter provisions to the effect that no employee in the classified service shall be removed except for cause and requiring a statement of reasons for suspension and affording opportunity for explanation and hearing, the view held by all being that such statutory or charter provisions refer to matters of personal conduct of the employee and are not intended to restrict the public authorities in their efforts to effect necessary or desirable economies." Relying on this established principle the Court, in *State v. Munson*, 48 N. E. (2d) 109 (Ohio), sustained the discharge of a city employee for reasons of economy.

BOOK REVIEWS

Manpower for Victory: Total Mobilization for Total War. John J. Corson. Farrar and Rinehart, New York, N. Y. 1943. 299p. \$3.00.

Here is an audacious book. Despite all the fuss and furore over the "manpower muddle," despite all the frenzied beating of breasts and viewing with alarm the invasion of states' rights by an overweening federal government, despite all the half-humorous references to the strange violations of common sense to be found in our "Washington Wonderland," one of our foremost "bureaucrats" has had the effrontery to write a book containing well-ordered facts, an understandable statement of a complex problem, and what look like reasonable proposals for its solution.

Mr. Corson starts with a simple estimate: By December, 1943, 61.5 million men, women and children will be required in the armed forces or at work—this from a total of 95.1 million persons between the ages of 14 and 65. To date, the total employed in all activities, civilian and military, has reached about 57 million. The first part of Mr. Corson's book deals with the question of where the additional workers will be found.

The labor reserve is described as having four components: (1) those people who are not now in the labor force—housewives, students, part-time workers, retired workers, the handicapped, those in institutions, and workers who might be imported from other countries; (2) unused or partially used manpower in the labor force—the unemployed and partly employed workers who have suffered from discrimination in employment; (3) workers already employed at the top of their skills, but working in industries not essential to the war effort; and (4) the "invisible labor reserve,"—workers already employed in essential work who are not working at their maximum productive capacity. To un-

lock this last reserve, management will have to find ways to remedy absenteeism, labor turnover, hoarding of skilled labor, industrial accidents, disease, waste of labor, a too-short work week, etc.

Finding potential workers is not enough, however. If we are to utilize them effectively, we must have soundly conceived mobilization machinery, training plans, and a program of allocation which will supply workers where needed with a minimum of personal dislocation.

Mr. Corson writes tellingly of the shortcomings of our present manpower mobilization machinery. One of the most vital parts is the local selective service board which, without technical assistance, must determine whether an individual of military age is more important in industry, in agriculture, or in the armed forces. A plan conceived in peacetime, with particular emphasis on the avoidance of family dislocation, is thus continued into a period of total war with its attendant manpower shortage. There is, moreover, no central agency to which the local board can look for unified policy guidance. Our country has failed to recognize effectively the interlocking nature of the manpower needs of the armed forces, industry, and agriculture. To quote Mr. Corson, "Our failure in this country to face up to this basic aspect of the manpower problem was strikingly illustrated on January 25, 1943, when Undersecretary of War Patterson declared that the volume of manpower needed in the Army is a determination for military leaders to make, and War Manpower Commission Chairman McNutt announced that he would delegate responsibility for recruiting agricultural labor to the United States Department of Agriculture! The manpower needs for the Army and for the farms, it would seem, are to be determined with-

out reference to other equally important demands upon the manpower pool."

The role of the United States Employment Service in the manpower program is evident throughout the book. It is the maddening role of an agency whose necessary activities are made clear by both the experience of other countries and the situation it sees from day to day, but whose hands are tied by a Congress fearful of the growth of a vast federal bureaucracy. The reader will find in this book a surprisingly creditable record of constructive activity on the part of the USES, handicapped though it has been. Despite these handicaps, the United States Employment Service must be recognized as "the essential operating instrument of the present and any future manpower program." It must operate on a truly national scale if manpower is not to be wasted in purposeless migration.

The training of workers is another important part of the total manpower job. Mr. Corson points to the necessity of various types of programs to accomplish this. The pre-employment training of displaced and inexperienced workers, their maintenance during training, their transportation to the job, and their continuing training on the job—all these will be called for if the nation's manpower is to be fully utilized. The author makes clear the importance of developing pre-employment training as a specific rather than a general program. It must be aimed at a particular type of skill, preferably one which is needed in the community. Too often, the skills developed have been determined by the kind of training equipment readily available.

In discussing the allocation of manpower, the author reviews the persuasive and semi-authoritative approaches which have been used in this country, and then demonstrates the need for compulsory measures if the total manpower need becomes much greater. This controversial question is accorded full discussion on both sides, without a clear recommendation emerging, however. Mr. Bernard M. Baruch is quoted: "Enforced and involuntary service for a private master is and has been repeatedly and clearly defined by our Supreme Court as slavery. . . ." Mr. William Green takes a similar view: "If the worker is frozen to his job, denied the right to improve his standard of life and living by securing work at higher

wages when opportunity presents itself, management and the owners of industry should forego the right to profit from the earnings of such worker." Mr. Corson concludes that "persuasion (should be used) where possible, pressure if necessary, and compulsion only where unavoidable." The reader is left with the clear impression that the latter step is nearly upon us.

The critic will find in this book an abundance of points with which he can disagree, but they will be mostly questions of technique; and even the most violent critic will be grateful to Mr. Corson for assembling the manpower facts in such an orderly fashion. While a review would fall short of academic standards if it did not contain a conventional expression of regret that the book contains no index, the review must nevertheless not end on a negative note. It is a stimulating, clear presentation which no one concerned with the manpower problem can afford to miss.

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Public Control of Labor Relations. D. O. Bowman. The Macmillan Company, New York. 1942. 500p. \$5.00.

The National Labor Relations Act has been the most controversial of all New Deal legislation. It gives statutory recognition to the right of workers to bargain collectively with their employers through representatives of their choosing. Like goodness and generosity, the purpose laid down by the act had always met with universal approbation. But the Labor Relations Act, unlike so many old state laws which "recognized labor's right to organize," did not stop with the declaration of a general principle. It set out to make its guarantees effective by setting up an administrative authority to implement it. This authority, the National Labor Relations Board, is empowered to deal with two kinds of labor relations problems. The first are "unfair labor practices" by employers—acts and practices by which employers seek to interfere with the rights of their employees under the law. The second are the conflicting claims of labor organizations to recognition of the right to represent the majority of the workers for whom they claim to speak.

An agency dealing with problems of such

highly controversial character could hardly avoid becoming the object of bitter attack. While the Board's duty to determine the appropriate bargaining unit threw it into the controversy between craft and industrial unionism, the principal criticisms of the Board and the major attack upon it came from the employers. This took the form mainly of accusing the Board and its agents of prejudice against the employer and "partiality" to labor, and of condemning the act itself as "one-sided." These charges of "one-sidedness" revolved largely around the fact that the law prohibits the use of coercion in their efforts to bring workers into their ranks. Mr. Bowman shows how this very plausible contention became an oblique attack upon the public policy underlying the law. He shows, too, how the attacks on the Board's procedures, upon its membership and upon its staff were basically assaults upon governmental implementation of the right of workers to organize and bargain through representatives of their choosing.

Mr. Bowman's book is divided into five parts. The first deals with the legislative policy of public control of labor relations. The next two parts deal with the two categories of problems with which the National Labor Relations Board is commissioned to deal—unfair labor practices and the certification of employee representatives. Part IV deals with the Board's procedures, while Part V discusses its internal organization and personnel. Part VI, called "Record and Recapitulation," covers such topics as case statistics, the Board and the courts, and the Board and the administrative process.

Each part and each chapter demonstrates the atmosphere of fierce controversy in which the Board has operated. A large segment of the employer group never accepted the principles of the Labor Relations Act and was consequently at war with the Board from the beginning. If the Board had had the support of a united labor movement its position in the face of these employer attacks would have been stronger. But the labor movement, itself divided in several directions, gave the Board no united support. On the contrary certain sections of the labor movement fought the Board from without, along with its political and employer opponents. At the same time the Board's own staff was divided into contending factions

adhering to one side or the other of the political elements that were striving for supremacy inside of labor's ranks.

With cool detachment Mr. Bowman sets forth all the facts of these sizzling political controversies, internal and external. He does this by objective statement of the divergent views of Board members on such issues as the designation of the bargaining unit, or on altering the rules of procedure to permit employers to petition for elections. He discusses Dr. Leiserson's opinion of certain key staff members and his objections to the dominating role of lawyers in the Board's operations. He tells part of the story of the successful attempt of the Board's enemies to force David J. Saposs, one of the nation's outstanding students of labor, out of the staff. He missed, however, the role played by some of Mr. Saposs' political opponents on the staff. He discusses the hostile press campaign, the Congressional investigations, the systematic efforts to misrepresent the Board's functions, purposes and processes. He analyzes the proposals to alter the law to overcome its alleged "one-sidedness" and "to give the employer an even break." He discusses the attacks upon the competence and experience of the Board's personnel in the light of its actual records and accomplishments.

The central attack upon the Board took the form mainly of an attempt to impugn its impartiality. This shortly was projected into a war on the whole administrative process. According to Mr. Bowman,

Those who have opposed the Act, and more particularly, those who would change the administrative process, have attempted to characterize the administrative method of control as "judicial," "legislative," or as "executive." But the administrative method of control is in its entirety and without gaps, a *process*; and as an organic process the method defies a separation of functions into neat categories. Its character is a blend of the tripartite division of powers. This is well demonstrated by the Board.

The traditional concept of the impartiality of the public servant, derived largely from the courts, the police, and the labor arbitrator, takes on a different character in the regulatory administrative agency. Here, and particularly in the case of a body like the National Labor Relations Board, effective operation requires a staff which firmly believes in the purposes and objectives of the act which the agency enforces. The fact that the National Labor Relations Board was manned by such personnel seems to

have been one of the strongest objections to it. This basic requirement obviously must not be permitted to interfere with scrupulously fair and impartial administration within the framework of the law and with the law's social objectives in mind.

The war has temporarily pushed the work of the National Labor Relations Board into the background. The likelihood is, however, that peace will again draw it into the limelight unless the breaches in the labor movement are healed and American employers accept trade unionism among their workers without attempting to undermine it. There would then still be plenty of work for the Labor Relations Board. But under such circumstances it would be able to function as an accepted institution, like the Interstate Commerce Commission, or the Board of Tax appeals—both of which handle highly controversial matters—without having constantly to fight to preserve itself from emasculation or destruction.

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Oral Tests in Public Personnel Selection. A report submitted to the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada by the Committee on Oral Tests in Public Personnel Selection. Samuel H. Ordway, Jr., Chairman. Civil Service Assembly, Chicago. 1943. xviii, 174p. \$3.00.

One of the truly encouraging trends in the field of public personnel administration in recent years has been the increased attention being devoted to the improvement, through scientific study and research, of the examination phases of the selection process. The number and variety of sizes of civil service agencies that now employ persons who are competent to translate selection problems into research projects and to draw scientifically acceptable and realistically adequate conclusions from the results of such research are, happily, on the increase.

A disturbingly recurrent reaction experienced by this reviewer as he read *Oral Tests in Public Personnel Selection*, the Assembly's sixth committee report on policies and practices in public personnel administration, was that entirely too large an area of present—and projected, too—practices in oral testing appear

to have their origin in tradition or in *a priori* judgments. The number of research studies cited (and that conceivably could have been cited) in support of the procedures advocated by the committee bespeaks the desperate need which exists for the immediate extension of intensive research to this area of the selection process. Increased recognition of the fact that responsibility for oral testing should be placed "in the examining division subject to the direction of the chief examiner" (p. 70), and the trend toward staffing examination divisions with personnel competent to conduct and to profit from realistic but logically and statistically sound experiments make it possible to hope that it will not be too long before traditional (as well as new) armchair-conceived practices will be required to prove their validity or be replaced by procedures based on suitable experimental evidence.

The committee's report should be of very considerable value in pointing up both the need for greater research and the areas requiring earliest attention. Chapter XI, "Evaluation of the Oral Process," was doubtless designed to be of assistance in this connection, but since many research workers will probably find the data presented there rather incomplete they will want to comb the entire report for further evidence.

Everyone interested in the validity of oral tests must, of course, be concerned with the related problem of developing suitable criteria of job success. As the report points out (p. 160): "There is still much to be done in the way of perfecting the independent criterion against which the results of the oral test can be appraised." Until present-day shortcomings in the field of performance appraisal are eliminated, "any effort to determine the validity of the oral test by using an external criterion will be largely a process of lifting one's self by the bootstraps."

One of the characteristics of the committee's report which is sure to provoke considerable lively discussion among practitioners in the field of public personnel examining is its strong slant toward the so-called "legalistic" approach in the conduct of the interview. Nor will differences of opinion be confined solely to readers, for the content of the report evidences numerous examples of disagreement among committee members themselves. These dif-

ferences are permitted to manifest themselves in two ways. The commoner and less disconcerting way is the use of footnotes containing qualifying or dissenting comments by individual members of the committee. The somewhat less fortunate manifestation of differences in approach results from the fact that some of the chapters appear to be orientated in one direction, others in another.

Some of the differences appear to be relatively unimportant and to involve little more than symbol (language) preferences. (For example, "legalists" appear to prefer *competence, relevance, materiality, trustworthiness, probity*, etc., while those with backgrounds which include the study of psychometrics appear to prefer *objectivity, reliability, validity, halo effect*, etc.) Of much more fundamental importance, however, are the questions concerning the extent to which oral test procedures should be required to meet legal requirements and whether it is possible to place in the record the kinds of evidence which constitute the most valid indicators of the interviewee's likelihood of success on the job for which he is being examined.

A considerable portion of the report is devoted to the presentation of the necessity, wisdom, practicability, and validity of establishing a record which is "just as reviewable as any other part of the examining technique" (p. 130), and which will furnish a "reviewable basis for the application of the rating standards" (p. 54). The following quotation may further clarify what is involved in the legalistic approach (pp. 40-41):

In an oral test the examiners may be compared to a judge who tries issues without a jury. The examiners must hear the evidence, determine its materiality, its relevance, and its competence to be rated. Having so determined, they must disregard that which is incompetent, irrelevant, and immaterial, and award the rating only on the basis of competent evidence. That is, they must award the rating as a judge without a jury awards the verdict.

The proponents of this approach are not, however, unmindful of the dangers of excessive formalism, for they caution that, in the conduct of the interview, . . . "legalism is to be avoided. . . [for] the examiner is dealing with human values. The examining process must not become a legalistic end in itself" (p. 40). And again: "In developing a good record system for the purposes of review it is necessary to avoid one common danger: the making of a legalistic record which actually does not pre-

serve the basis of rating" (p. 130). However, although the statement is made "that there is no real conflict between what has been termed the 'legalistic' and the 'psychological' approaches to the oral process" (p. 45), the following quotation (p. 131) would at least appear to suggest the possibility that something less than a complete meeting of minds exists:

Isolated bits of evidence (gestures, expressions, reported incidents) which can be exactly specified in the record are likely *not* to be significant bases of our estimates of a candidate's qualifications. It is the composite picture which is revealing. Its meaning depends upon its consistency with other data about the individual. To set down the separate observations and then mechanically to rate them gives the appearance of objectivity and may satisfy a court, but has little promise of achieving genuinely valuable appraisals of candidates. It usually results . . . in spurious and self-deceptive accuracy and objectivity as far as the real purpose of the rating is concerned.

As always when there is disagreement it is necessary to guard against the dangers of what semanticists call a "two-valued orientation." Were a vote to be taken it is quite likely that most examiners would prefer not to have to be wholly "legalists" or wholly "non-legalists." There are too many desirable features inherent both in the legalistic approach and in the "psychological" approach. Controlled experimentation should go far toward solving the problem.

While most agencies have been comparatively free from the necessity of having to defend their oral test procedures in court, others have been obliged to justify them on numerous occasions. "The function of the court in making an authorized review of any competitive examination," the report points out, "is to determine whether or not there has been formal and substantial compliance with constitutional or statutory provisions" (p. 141). Thus far, fortunately, decisions have tended toward a strictly legal interpretation of the principles affecting validity and have avoided passing upon the suitability of the particular methods or devices used. In this connection, however, the report does well to emphasize that the "difference between a court's limited attention to validity in law and the extrajudicial requirement of test validity, which remains the additional problem of examiners, should be kept constantly in mind" (p. 141).

The use of naive and inappropriate statistical procedures in computing oral test scores and in combining those scores with the results

of other parts of the total examination to secure final grades can, and in practice frequently does, result in the assignment of a set of weights to the elements of the oral test and to the components of an examination entirely different from those authorized. Unfortunately, this important subject is given little more than mention by the committee. With that exception, however, the coverage of the report appears to be quite adequate, including as it does such phases of the subject as the kinds of situations in which interviews and oral tests have been found useful (Chapter II), the principles of competitive oral testing (Chapter IV), the administrative aspects of oral testing (Chapter V), the training of interviewers (Chapter VI), the procedures employed in oral testing (Chapter VII), rating and recording (Chapter VIII), appeal procedures (Chapter IX), legally imposed sanctions and limitations (Chapter X), and an evaluation of the oral process (Chapter XI).

Included in the appendix to the report are a list of 23 titles of books and articles on the subject of oral testing, and reproductions of five examples of oral rating forms employed by jurisdictions in various parts of the United States. All of the forms are modifications of the graphic type of rating scale and were apparently originally designed to be employed in connection with the "psychological" approach to the interview rather than the "legalistic" approach, although some of them could conceivably be adapted for use with the latter.

While not so well integrated as some of the previously released committee reports, many of which conformed to the very highest standards, the present volume does deserve a place in the personnel agency's library. Certainly it is the only available single repository of so much information on the important subject of oral testing. Although the conflicts in philosophy and opinion which crop up in the report may trouble those who are seeking a definitive work, these are perhaps inescapable. Particularly is this true when one considers not only that the oral test has opponents as well as proponents, but also that neither group is of one mind within itself. That the Committee is aware of this handicap is well evidenced in the closing words of the volume: "By pointing out shortcomings and by suggesting positive steps for overcoming them, the Committee has

sought to bring enthusiast and critic to a common middle ground whereon both accept the oral test for what it is and nourish it for what it will become."

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Elements of Supervision. Wm. R. Spriegel and Edward Schulz. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York, 1942. 273p. \$2.25.

This volume is intended as a text for the training of supervisors, and must be read and reviewed with this fact in mind. It was not intended as an original contribution to the already voluminous literature in the field of management. The reader will be misdirected who looks for new ideas or original conclusions in *Elements of Supervision*. The comments contained in subsequent paragraphs are directed to the question of its value as a training device.

At the outset it is important that the authors' interpretation of the term "supervision" be clearly understood. Readers of this review may well be expected to be persons primarily interested in the field of public personnel administration—persons to whom the word suggests the relatively simple and precise relationship which exists between a given superior and a given subordinate. It is not in this sense that Spriegel and Schulz have employed the term. Nor have they used it in the same manner as did Beckman in his comparable study when he explains the term "supervisor" by saying "the term may include such titles as 'foremen,' 'general foremen,' 'assistant foremen,' 'forewomen,' 'gang boss,' 'overseer,' 'section chief,' etc."

The term "supervisor" as employed in this study means "any person who is responsible for (1) the conduct of others in the achievement of a particular task, (2) the maintenance of quality standards, (3) the protection and care of materials, and (4) services to be rendered to those under his control." Those familiar with the literature in the general field of management will probably agree that this definition has at one time or another been used to distinguish the broader terms of "management," "administration," "administrative management," and "execution." Anderson and Schwenning have already provided a classic illustration of our confused use of common terms

and it is not the reviewer's intention to repeat that lesson. Suffice it here to say that as a result of the variations in the use of the term "supervision" it is necessary to point out that Spriegel and Schulz have poured broad content into the term.

The reader's understanding of the term is further assisted by a quick review of the Table of Contents. The volume will thus be found to contain discussions of such diverse managerial problems as organization structure, wage standardization, job analysis, waste control, absenteeism, record systems, safety programs, and labor relations. The scope of the definition, the far-reaching significance of the problems discussed, and the method of presentation lead one to conclude that this book is intended as a text for the training of executives. It may therefore be said to complement rather than to duplicate Beckman's volume, *How to Train Supervisors*.

The employee who has but recently acquired executive status will find in *Elements of Supervision* a brief, well-written, well-organized discussion of the practical problems which he must face and the varied techniques and bodies of knowledge which he must master. He will find it a volume which reduces to simple terms a field in which as a subordinate he may have stood in awe. On the other hand, the new executive with previous theoretical training in the field of administration will find it a careful review of materials with which he is already familiar. To an outsider the volume would appear to have served its intended purpose admirably.

That which makes the reviewer an "outsider" is that which necessitates a further qualification of the value of *Elements of Supervision*. This book was intended for the executive in private management. Its terminology, reasoning, illustrations, and psychology are those of industry. It could serve none other than reference purposes for the public administrator. Throughout the entire text and bibliography there is complete disregard of "supervision" in the public service. This, of course, is no more reflection upon this work than it is upon the writings of our own people who write exclusively for public consumption. It is, however, an indication of the limited use to which the readers of this journal will be able to put the book.

There are several points with regard to content and presentation to which attention might be called. In the first place, despite the fact that the book is intended as a text for the training of supervisors on a relatively high level, it contains almost nothing on the rather important and fundamental problem of "span of control." The authors attempt a reasonably definitive distinction between tasks which may be delegated and those which may not be passed to subordinates. Yet they have not worked this same problem back to the closely related question of man's ability to supervise only a given number of men under given circumstances. While one would not expect an elementary text to set forth Graicunas' formula, one might well anticipate some reference to the accumulated lessons of many centuries of observation of one of the supervisor's fundamental problems.

Again, one wonders why a text for executives could not have included a more comprehensive discussion of the more specific aspects of organization structure. While the authors have included the orthodox industrial description of "line or military," "functional," and "line-and-staff" organization structures, they have largely disregarded such questions as the criteria of organization as set forth generally by Gulick and Urwick or more specifically by Petersen and Plowman and the proper structural location of auxiliary agencies.

On the other hand, several of the chapters are very comprehensive. One of these, "The Supervisor as an Instructor," is as useful a summary for public service training as it is for instruction in the industrial field. The discussion of "leadership" in the supervisory process has an unusual reality which distinguishes it from the rather hollow preachments which are contained in too much of the literature of industrial management. Again, it is also in rather sharp contrast with the disregard in which the subject is unfortunately held in the literature of public administration.

The use of this volume as a training text would probably have been facilitated by the inclusion of a summary. Concluding with a chapter on "The Supervisor and Labor Relations," the authors leave the student in mid-air. The occasional summaries at the end of individual chapters, while serving their own purposes well, do not reduce the need for a general summary.

In conclusion it is well to return to the general observation contained in one of the earlier paragraphs of this review. *Elements of Supervision* is a well-written, carefully considered, reasonably complete discussion of most of the basic aspects of the executive's job. Despite its limited usefulness in the public service it, nevertheless, seems well adapted to the training purpose for which it was intended.

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BOOK NOTES

The Tennessee Valley Authority. C. H. Pritchett. University of North Carolina Press. 1943. 330p. \$3.50.

As indicated by its sub-title, "A Study in Public Administration," this volume describes and analyzes the administrative structure of the TVA, inter-relating its component parts to one another and to the whole. Of particular interest to those in the public personnel field is Chapter IX, "Personnel Administration," wherein the author describes the personnel policies of the Authority and the machinery for their execution. Being exempted from coverage under the federal civil service system, the Authority has evolved its own program, incorporating a number of features not found elsewhere in the federal service. While the description of the program and the problems that have been met and overcome makes the chapter of considerable interest in itself, a still greater significance is derived from a reading of the chapter as a part of the whole study, for only by doing so is the reader made fully aware of the close-knit integration that exists between the personnel program and the over-all administration of the enterprise.

The Municipal Year Book, 1943. International City Managers' Association, Chicago, Illinois. 1943. 603p. \$8.50.

This tenth annual edition of the Municipal Year Book contains a resume of activities and a comprehensive body of statistical information on American cities. Personnel administrators and technicians will be particularly interested in the section on municipal personnel, which includes data on all cities with populations over 25,000, and for 575 cities with populations between 10,000 and 25,000. Within this section are found tables listing information on number of employees and total annual pay rolls, classification and pay plans, hours worked per week, retirement systems, employee organizations, and civil service programs now in operation. A new feature of this edition of the Year Book is a directory of chief personnel officers in cities over 10,000. Other sections of the volume will be of value as general reference material.

Controlling Absenteeism; A Record of War

Plant Experience. United States Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards. Washington, D. C. 1943. 57p. 10 cents.

This pamphlet summarizes the experience of management in dealing with the problems of absenteeism in 200 war plants. The first section consists of a short and concise listing of these problems and the absence control devices which have been employed. Subsequent sections contain citations of the results obtained from the use of these controls in individual plants. Of particular interest are some observations made by the British Ministry of Labour and National Service, as a result of a recent investigation of war plants in Britain, where the problem has been evident.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

46. Clark, Harold G. *An opinion study of the preparation and selection of personnel workers.* *Personnel Administration* 5 (4) December, 1942: 3-6.—As an aid to personnel administrators, prospective personnel workers, educators, and occupational counselors, a questionnaire study was directed to a representative group of college professors, writers, research workers, consultants, and administrators in the field of personnel. Of the 75 asked to participate, 65 replied. The questions put to them were: "What personal traits are most essential to personnel workers in the public service?" "What formal preparation of personnel workers seems most desirable?" "What kind of civil service examinations shall we use for junior personnel workers?" and "What are your overall views on training and selection methods?" Of the nineteen personal traits presented, "understanding of people" and "fairness" were rated as most important. The trait considered least important was "a dominant personality." "A high degree of intelligence," so frequently a factor in civil service tests, was ranked twelfth. Some of the group spoke of the personnel job as one of "developing human capacity" and mentioned the use of conferences and counseling to achieve this purpose. The desirable qualities of insight and ability to motivate others are not always measured by present civil service examinations, but the time is not far distant when they will be measured to a greater degree. Of 27 college subjects, selected on the basis of frequency of appearance in personnel literature, personnel administration was ranked first in importance, English second, management techniques third, and public administration fourth. The study indicates that a course in personnel administration, broadly conceived, is the best single course for any person contemplating personnel work. English ranked high because actual operations of a personnel office require the ability to state matters completely, concisely, clearly, and with appropriate tone. More than a third of the group indicated that they did not believe specialized courses were necessary in the specialized personnel fields; others mentioned per-

sonnel and public administration, psychology, labor relations, law, and statistics as helpful courses. A majority thought college graduation or its equivalent essential. Internship in personnel work ranked second. A master's degree was regarded as valuable but not essential and a doctor's degree as of little importance. Some commented that college trained personnel might be expected to contribute breadth of viewpoint and knowledge, professional attitude toward personnel work, ability to use source material, capacity for growth, self-confidence and poise. The most frequent deficiencies of college-trained workers were felt to be impractical preparation and impractical viewpoint, inability to work with others, and lack of knowledge of the work at hand. Almost all members of the group favored the recruitment of personnel workers at the entrance level and by means of civil service examinations, but felt that the written examination should not be used to the exclusion of other methods. Work experience was not considered a desirable prerequisite for junior recruits, though several suggested that non-personnel work experience would be desirable. The Junior Professional Assistant examinations of the U.S. Civil Service Commission were frequently praised as a source of likely candidates. General comments indicated that, since personnel work is insufficiently stabilized in the federal service to provide a basis for specialized training, about the best method is to try to recruit top college men and women and then train them on the job.—Edith K. Mosher.

47. Davenport, Frederick M. *The personnel office and the full use of manpower.* *Personnel Administration* 5 (5) January, 1943: 3-5.—One primary obligation of a personnel office is to infuse the organization with the philosophy of the democratic process: that a man's satisfaction in his work and his intelligent attitude toward it are the most important factors in production. The personnel officer can help to develop the highest utilization of manpower by placing men where they can use their highest skills, by planning training programs, by offering rewards for simpler ways of getting work

done, by stressing the importance of developing administrative talent, and by getting across to employees what this crisis is all about so that they will be anxious to put their fullest effort into the doing of the job.—*William T. McDonald.*

48. Faubien, Richard W., and Bellows, Roger M. **Personnel work in the Army Air Forces: the Classification Division, Army Air Forces Technical Command.** *Psychological Bulletin* 39 (8) October, 1942: 643-64.—The Classification Division of the Army Air Forces Technical Training Command is staffed with a group of military psychologists who develop and apply personnel techniques in classifying and training the ground crews for the Army Air Forces. The volume of inflow of these trainees to replacement training and Air Forces school centers is great: about eleven ground-crew specialists are trained for each air crew cadet graduated. In the development of personnel tests and related techniques, several points of emphasis are important: analysis of the characteristics of successive populations of trainees; analysis of training course and specialist duties to be performed by graduates; procedures for standard and uniform administration, interpretation, and recording of test and school criterion data; and continuous follow-up studies to check, verify, and refine methods in use. Typical of the personnel investigations made is the study of 689 failing trainees at the Aircraft Armament School. Definite relationships were found between "wash-out" rates and Army General Classification Test scores and mathematics test scores. Order of preference for the course was closely related to the washout-success criterion. For 624, or 91 per cent of the trainees, armament was either the first or second choice of courses. The elimination rate tended to increase sharply from 25 per cent for the men who indicated the armament course as their first choice to 100 per cent for the men who indicated armament as their fourth or lesser choice of training. In another study it was revealed that recruits overestimated their typing speed by 9 to 15 words per minute when asked for subjective judgments of their rates of typing. Of practical value to the Air Forces clerical schools was the deduction that if typing proficiency tests cannot be feasibly employed, and if clerical recruits must be selected partially on the basis of self-estimated typing speeds, it is possible to estimate actual from claimed typing speed.—*Norman J. Powell.*

49. Giberson, Lydia G., M. D. **Psychiatry in personnel work.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (6) February, 1943: 3-6.—If an experienced personnel man were to ask himself the question: "What is the most troublesome basic problem we have to face?", it is more than probable that he would find himself

arrayed against the individual with his frailties, inconsistencies, and personal problems. With only a little further analysis, he will see that each employee duplicates in his personal life the social, physical, economic, industrial, and emotional forces which make our world what it is. Should these forces synchronize to form a completely harmonious personality, the personnel man knows that he has a valuable employee. But if these forces should fail to synchronize, there is created immediately a maladjustment which impairs the employee's efficiency and which, in some cases, may render him economically unfit. Countless searchlights have been turned upon the industrial worker and his problems in the past few years. Out of all this research has come emphasis on one basic doctrine: the invisibility of the worker as a social and industrial unit. Industrial psychiatry is a phase of preventive medicine which aims to detect and forestall serious mental and emotional maladjustments among industrial employees. In the midst of a gigantic war effort it is impossible to have sufficient psychiatrists to meet the ever-increasing demands, but it is possible to apply sound psychiatric principles to personnel work through educational methods—educating the worker to better understanding and control of himself, and educating the supervisor to better understanding of the worker. In most instances, we have been teaching the supervisor to handle the machine but not the man. Obviously the extent of a supervisor's production can be measured by his ability to correlate the man and the machine. In the final analysis the proper handling of people may well be one of the deciding factors in winning the war. It is essential that all of us in personnel work have the proper philosophy in approaching this task.—*Robert C. Sampson.*

50. Gladden, E. N. **The civil service: yesterday and to-morrow.** *Public Administration* (England) 20 (3) October to December, 1942: 125-38.—The current criticisms of pre-war civil service in Great Britain may be appropriately classified under four main headings: (1) ineffective control, (2) moderate efficiency, (3) restricted experience, and (4) "red tape." Contributing to the moderate efficiency and restricted experience charges were inadequate recruitment standards for the basic grades; inadequate training; narrow field of choice for administrative classes; paucity of movement of staff between ministries; and lack of outside experience. Several changes are proposed. For more effective control, Parliament should maintain a continuous review of the administration, but subordinates should be allowed a wider political freedom. Personnel and organizational problems should be more energetically co-ordinated. To achieve improved efficiency, post-war recruitment should be based upon impartiality and

competence. Training, both through a staff college and by the development of up-to-date office procedures, should be expanded. To secure widened experience within the civil service, employees to fill administrative classes need to be more widely recruited from other civil service classes, and methods should be introduced to permit greater staff fluidity between departments. For the abolition of "red tape," it will be necessary to secure improved administrative knowledge and more personal contacts to supplement correspondence. Also needed are a wider delegation of responsibility, and staffing and organization aimed at more expeditious transmission of information from the field to the top.—*G. M. Morris.*

51. Glover, Katherine. **Women as manpower.** *Survey Graphic* 32 (3) March, 1943: 69-75.—Womanpower has suddenly boomed into a major national problem. The critical shortage of manpower requires that an ever-increasing number of women take jobs in war industries. Since the womanpower supply is not mobile, it is necessary that recruitment be intensive and confined to local areas where the labor is needed. This means that housewives must fill the vacancies in the labor ranks. The rapid expansion in the use of women in Buffalo industries is shown by two samplings, one made on January 1, 1942, in which 4,000 women were found employed in 178 plants, and the other made in January, 1943, in which 150 plants were found to employ 43,000 women. Recruitment of women was helped in one area by the distribution of questionnaires and by house-to-house canvassing. The ability of women to replace men has been found to be satisfactory in the majority of jobs. Where women are not qualifying in war plants it is likely to be due to faulty management policy. Arising from the increase in womanpower are a number of benefits: the introduction of safety devices, the improvement of working conditions, and the simplification of production techniques. But with the benefits have come certain social problems. Many women are trying to run their homes and carry on a war job at the same time, resulting in physical strain which is often overlooked in the heat of war production. No large-scale system has yet been devised to care for children whose mothers are employed in war work. An analysis of absenteeism in industry, greater among women than men, reveals that home responsibilities are an important contributing factor. Both the CIO and the AFL have encouraged the inclusion of women in unions. Women must also fill the gaps in agriculture. The mobilization of Oregon women for farm work, which succeeded in supplying women and children to the extent of sixty per cent of the farm need, offers a constructive approach to the problem. In every agricultural

region the United States Employment Service is carrying out a farm-enlistment program. The inclusion of women in war production work differs from their inclusion in the traditional American factory system in the following ways: women are filling men's jobs; a greater volume of workers is required; and the pressure of work output is greater. Some social benefits derived from the inclusion of women in war production are: improvement of working conditions through the introduction of labor-saving devices; the establishment of equality between men and women in wage bargaining; and the breakdown of the prejudice of management and labor unions against women workers.—*Adrian E. Gory.*

52. Mandell, Milton M. **Federal personnel headaches.** *Personnel Journal* 21 (10) April, 1943: 359-62.—Recruitment difficulties in the federal service, especially in the clerical grades, have led to a considerable increase in internal management problems. Despite overtime pay and civil service rulings limiting promotion, acute personnel shortages exist. The general deficiency in the supply of lower grade personnel disrupts performance in many ways. Frequently employees are required to do jobs for which they are too highly qualified, or the work flow is impeded because stenographic personnel is unavailable. On the other hand, certain employees have seized the opportunity to negotiate for higher classifications although the duties of their positions may not indicate that such a reclassification is justified. To mitigate this latter practice, the Civil Service Commission should apply the same regulations as are applied to original appointments; namely, controlled interviews before the transactions are completed rather than review and approval after their completion. Other problems stem from such conditions as the longer work week with its consequent increase of leave-taking, and a lack of program coordination resulting in under-staffing or over-staffing. These evidences of confusion are indicative of the necessity for adequate supervision and leadership by the top operating and administrative officials in order to cope with the increased responsibilities produced by the war.—*Rita Davidson.*

53. Weihofen, Henry. **The civil service program for government lawyers.** *Lawyers Guild Review* 3 (1) February, 1943: 1-5.—The Board of Legal Examiners was established within the United States Civil Service Commission to implement the 1941 Executive Order bringing attorneys and all other professional employees of the federal service under the jurisdiction of the Commission. The Board, composed of seven principal law officers of the government, two private practitioners, and two law pro-

fessors, was given the authority to recruit for legal positions. It was decided to limit competitive examinations to legal positions paying \$3200 or less and to encourage promotion to higher ranking positions. The first examination for attorneys held by the Board to establish eligible registers for attorney positions in the federal service was begun in September 1942. More than 13,000 persons competed in the written tests and, of these, some 3,000 scored high enough to be asked to appear before interview boards of selected attorneys in the several states. These committees reduced the number of eligibles to 2,000. The written tests used in the first competitive examination were in short answer form and consisted of general legal problems, unstandardized intelligence material, and general information items concerning governmental affairs and current events. There were 250 questions in all—80 legal, 80 verbal, and 90 on general information. The legal material was weighted three times as much as the other material. Results of the written tests showed them to be of high reliability (.84 to .89) and of relatively high estimated validity. It was discovered that a negative correlation between age and score existed in the examination; this was explained by the relatively low salaries of the positions. The interviews held as part of the examining process were conducted by leading members of the bar in the several states. These interviews were intended to test qualifications not apparent from either the written test results or the review of law school work and legal experience. One problem encountered in the establishment of the registers to which no satisfactory solution has yet been found lies in the discrepancy between the apportionment quotas of the various states and the actual numbers of successful candidates residing in them. The Board of Law Examiners has announced its intention to raise standards of legal performance in the federal service insofar as this can be accomplished in the face of the current manpower shortage. In the meanwhile, it is hoped that more attorneys now in private practice will recognize the contribution they can make to the war effort and will offer their services to the Government for the duration.—*Robert I. Biren.*

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

54. Humm, D. G., and Wadsworth, G. W., Jr. *Temperament in industry*. *Personnel Journal* 21 (9) March, 1943: 314-22.—When workers are scarce, better-than-ordinary selection methods are needed to obtain every potentially desirable employee, including the handicapped, and to weed out the undesirables. Effective selection, placement, and supervision depend upon an understanding of the worker's temperament, as studies have shown that

a high percentage of worker failures are due to temperament maladjustments. Temperament is an element of an individual's personality which may be defined as his disposition to react to life situations, or his pattern of traits. It is possible to identify trait patterns and thus predict behavior. The Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale is useful for predicting the worker's ability to adjust to the job by evaluating seven different possible trait patterns. It is not enough, however, to consider temperament alone: failure to consider any important characteristic of the worker, such as intelligence, skill, or aptitude, may result in poor selection. The good selection program is not only thorough and economical, but is variable in accordance with the nature of the job. (Article contains six profile charts and analyses of temperament based on results obtained from the use of the Humm-Wadsworth Scale.) —Charles W. Fredriksen.

55. Lawshe, C. H., Jr. *A nomograph for estimating the validity of test items*. *The Journal of Applied Psychology* (6) December, 1942, 846-49.—Many of the techniques which have been reported for determining the discrimination value of items involve the use of information regarding the percentage of correct answers to a given item among groups known to possess different amounts or levels of the ability, knowledge, or trait being measured. In one method, the "Kelley Technique," the percentage of correct answers to a particular item by members of the "high" and "low" criterion groups respectively are computed. Additional labor is then involved in finding standard score values in appropriate normal probability curve tables and in performing the proper arithmetical operations. With the use of the nomograph presented here, the time necessary to estimate D-values, or discrimination values, is greatly reduced. The percentage of successful responses to an item by members of the "high" criterion group is located on one scale, and the "low" criterion percentage is located on a second scale. A ruler or straight-edge passing through the two points which have been located is then laid across the page. The discrimination value of the item is given by the point at which the straight-edge intersects the middle or D-value scale.—N. J. Powell.

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

56. Levine, Michael. *Some concepts of efficiency rating, Part 2*. *Personnel Administration* 5 (5) January, 1943: 8-14.—Personnel evaluations based on performance rating elements, rather than on personal attributes, are usually more acceptable to rating officials and to employees. Since the complexity of the job determines the number of rating

elements that should be considered, it is essential that an efficiency rating system provide a reservoir of rating elements from which those pertinent to any position may be selected for consideration. While the reservoir of rating elements must be adequate for every position, the situation can be met, without providing numerous lists of rating elements, by expressing the various aspects of positions in general concepts which become specific when applied to a particular position. It must be recognized that, in the preparation of a list of rating elements, the interrelations between the various rating elements that exist in different positions are necessarily lost; therefore, the summarization process should be flexible instead of according to a fixed formula. In the preparation of the list of rating elements, there are two general types of functions which seem to require separate treatment; they are expressed simply in the words "doing" and "seeing to the doing." The effectiveness of the "doing," or the non-administrative function can be broken down into three phases: how much, how well, and the manner of the doing. Each of these three phases should be broken down to a level which will yield rating elements which supervisors generally are capable of using. In contrast to the "doing" type of function, the administrative type can be described by elements representing complete segments of performance rather than qualities of performance. (The article includes definitions and interpretations of the rating elements contained in the United States Civil Service Commission's efficiency rating form.)—William T. McDonald.

57. Locke, Norman. **Employee ratings.** *Personnel Journal* 21 (8) February, 1943: 282-88.—With so many significant uses for employee ratings, it is essential that the rating scale be soundly constructed. Since job performance is being measured, the units of the scale should be elements of the job. In the construction of the scale, the job is first broken down into its component duties and responsibilities. These job elements are then adapted to become major items of the rating scale. Different forms of rating scales can be developed by this method. Employee rating is a process of judgment which is often unreliable; however, it can be made more reliable by the establishment of common standards. This is usually accomplished by the preparation of precise definitions of terms representing degrees of performance for each item in the scale, preferably in the form of descriptions of job performance which are illustrative of varying degrees of proficiency. The scores accorded the gradations of performance on the scale should progress at equal intervals from the poorest to the best, with the center score representing average performance. The final score is the sum of the scores of each item. Interpretation of

the final score may be made from a statistical or a logical point of view.—Charles W. Fredriksen.

58. Wohl, Elmer P. **Problems of efficiency rating administration.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (6) February, 1943: 7-12.—Despite war pressures, the mandatory and routine function of rating all employees each year on a specified form can be an effective springboard for a positive employee relations program aimed at greater interest and participation by employees in management, and higher levels of efficiency within the framework of democracy. The personnel office is responsible for planning the over-all operation of the efficiency rating program throughout an agency, for determining the number and location of efficiency rating committees, the form and content of instructions and the nature and method of training. Personnel staff members should sit on the efficiency rating committees. Uniform instructions for the guidance of efficiency rating committees can readily be prepared in the personnel office. Finally, the procedures for dealing with efficiency rating grievances are functions of personnel management. The principle that line supervisors should attempt to settle grievances of their employees is followed in settling grievances arising from efficiency ratings. It will be found that greater satisfaction for both employees and supervisors, and greater opportunities for education and correction of erroneous impressions, are inherent in the more informal procedures. The personnel or employee relations officer, upon request, can be of great assistance in conducting joint conferences between supervisors and employees, helping them prepare materials for the efficiency rating committee, and explaining the rating system to potential appellants, who frequently drop their grievances when given an authoritative statement as to how the rating system operates.—Charles H. Bentley.

TRAINING

59. Furia, John J. **Training as an administrative tool in New York City's transit system.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (4) December, 1942: 7-13.—When the New York City Transit System was unified in 1940, persons employed under the previous management were retained in similar or corresponding positions and maintained the seniority previously held among themselves. The Transit Unification Bureau of the Municipal Civil Service Commission has carried out the reclassification of employees, establishing lines of promotion, and determining positions for which competitive examinations are practicable. Training programs, largely for motormen and maintenance men, were already in operation but a new approach was needed to train the newly acquired employees in civil service methods and procedures and public relations. In one of its

first surveys, the Bureau of Training recognized the training need that developed with the concurrent unification of the city's subways. It has cooperated in the program already established by the Power Division of the Independent System and has established a pre-entry training program for motormen. The concept of a broad program of at least three year's duration and covering employees in almost every category has been developed in conferences with the Board of Transportation. A detailed cost analysis was made of the projected program to determine the tentative budget. Detailed outlines of courses have been developed, falling into eight general areas: (1) civil service methods; (2) departmental organization and procedures; (3) war training; (4) supervision; (5) public relations; (6) safety training; (7) maintenance; and (8) operation techniques. Courses on the supervisory level were most urgently requested by the Board of Transportation and a series of such courses began in October 1942. It was agreed that visual aids and training machinery were to be utilized as much as possible, and that the case conference procedure would be applied to the work at the supervisory and executive level. The Bureau of Training would furnish lecturers in appropriate courses and the Board of Transportation would provide the instructional personnel in the maintenance and technical operations courses. As an aid to the valuation of the worth of the program, it is planned to give examinations in many of the courses, to check on job performance, and to obtain supervisory and executive criticism. As a result of this program, it is anticipated that there will be built up a body of authentic material on which to base competitive and promotion examinations with a high degree of validity. The program is expected to pay dividends in terms of more efficient employees, a more flexible labor force, the clarification of administrative and supervisory problems, and heightened morale.—*Edith K. Mosher.*

60. Hogan, Ralph M. and Davis, Wallace M. **Finding training materials for the hard-to-fill job.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (7) March, 1943: 39.—One painful aspect of the manpower shortage is that personnel administrators face the immediate necessity of finding a way to develop talent for positions that have never previously been the object of any great concern. A job-analysis technique can be exploited profitably so that a training program is tailored to fit the specifications of this need. Each individual duty and activity should be isolated and listed, and the complete list classified into groups of related elements. A list of duties will have little value in training unless each duty is properly weighted as to the degree or extent to which it is carried out. The picture of the position is not com-

plete until a determination is made of the qualifications necessary for the performance of the work. Training material developed from this analysis will have the advantage of being pointed directly at the job and the people in it, and by its selectivity will avoid the twin hazards of giving training where it is not necessary and neglecting training where it is an imperative need. It is a tragic commentary on government administration (not to mention government training) that so little has ever been recorded to show the methods used by successful workers in the various activities of government. The content of a job-training program must be decided in terms, not of the whole job, but of the individual elements or duties which make up the job. Building a training course involves two essential factors: grouping the material into coherent units, and determining the methods to be used to carry on the training. The organization of the training content into a program will depend, of course, on the way in which the instruction is to be conducted. More experimentation is needed with the application of the job-analysis principle. The ideas expressed here are but one approach, but the results show enough promise to indicate that the fundamental premise of the principle is sound.—*Robert C. Sampson.*

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

61. Evans, Duane. **Problem of absenteeism in relation to war production.** *Monthly Labor Review* 56 (1) January, 1943: 1-9.—Thus far, war production has not been seriously limited by absenteeism. However, there are today a number of places where the amount of output is dependent upon the amount of trained labor which can be applied to the job. Moreover, as production schedules become more closely integrated, it is clearly evident that absenteeism will become a critical limiting factor throughout the war production effort. No statistical information is available to indicate the general extent of absenteeism in war industries. There is information, however, which indicates certain general characteristics of absences in industry. Absenteeism rates are generally higher for women than for men. Higher sickness rates and home responsibilities are contributing factors here. Absence rates tend to be higher among older workers, increasing rapidly after forty or fifty years of age. Absenteeism increases as the work-week becomes longer. Absences on different days of the week show a marked pattern influenced by weekends and paydays. In general, absences are least frequent on paydays, and quite high on the day following payday. There is also a tendency for absences to be numerous on days adjacent to a weekend or holiday. Evening and night

shifts tend to have higher absenteeism rates than day shifts. Present data indicate that accounting departments, tool cribs, offices and supervisory positions show lower rates than factory work generally. Absence-control programs generally have not been able to reduce absenteeism below two to three per cent. Some such level may be taken as a practical minimum, representing involuntary absenteeism, and everything over this regarded as probably preventable and so, in a sense, voluntary. The major cause of involuntary absence is sickness. Other factors influencing absenteeism are: lack of community health services, unsatisfactory working conditions and hours of work, accidents, housing shortages, transportation difficulties, lack of shopping facilities, necessity for obtaining professional services (e.g. doctors, dentists and lawyers), poor employee morale and the desire for higher wages. Successful absence-control programs seem to have two necessary and coordinate stages. First, the worker must be informed that there is definite disapproval on the part of his country, his employer and his fellow workers toward voluntary absenteeism. Second, he must be made aware that his absence does not pass unnoticed. The federal government can assist by stressing the unpatriotic aspects of voluntary absences through the use of speakers in the war plants, posters and radio programs. Absences among men subject to the draft may be discouraged by the policy of not giving occupational deferment to habitual absentees. Direct methods used by individual companies vary widely. One company requires any employee absent for a period of from one to three days to fill in a slip describing the reason for his absence. If the reason is not legitimate he is warned by a member of the absence-control unit. A habitual absentee is placed on probation; repeated absences bring dismissal. Workers absent three days or more must report to the absence-control unit. Occasional checks are made on employees reported as sick. Another company takes up the unpunched time cards shortly after the beginning of each shift. The absent or tardy worker has to go to his foreman to obtain his time card. Some establishments award banners, special bonuses or prizes for good attendance records. Other practices include posting names of absentees on bulletin boards, putting red or yellow stickers on absentees' time cards, requiring that they get their pay at "Hitler's Pay Table," and putting facsimile German marks in the pay envelopes with a pretended note of thanks from the German government. In a number of plants, the labor members of the labor-management committees interview absentees. In some cases, unions have sponsored programs to control absenteeism. One union is reported to have suspended the privileges of members dismissed for absenteeism. The participation of the federal gov-

ernment is probably needed to solve many manpower problems, but the most effective contribution to the reduction of absenteeism in war industries can be made by the cooperative effort of management and workers in each war plant.—*Ray Mullins.*

62. Unsigned. **Absenteeism: new national malady.** *Fortune* 27 (3) March, 1943: 104-05.—The basic fact about absenteeism is the lack of information concerning it. Even the definition varies. We do know, however, that the number of man-hours lost through absenteeism is appalling—from five to fifteen per cent of the war workers in nine industrial centers are daily marked absent, as compared with peacetime estimates of two per cent. Total production is often decreased by an even larger percentage. The causes may be conditions inside the plant, such as shortage of materials, lack of incentives, over-staffing against future needs, wage-rate differences, or too many overtime hours and lack of vacations. Outside the plant, personal or family sickness, bad housing, shopping, trips home, and occasional excessive drinking are among other causes of absenteeism. Probably the most important reason, however, is the failure of the worker to appreciate himself as a producer of vital weapons of war. Some companies have made efforts to curb absenteeism by such specific measures as extending plant medical care to the employee's family, shortening hours, and making wage adjustments. However, a national policy is needed. Legitimate absenteeism should be differentiated from other varieties, and clear, accurate, complete data on its prevalence compiled; experience should be exchanged; and, most important, concrete war aims and peace purposes should be articulated and a program for their fulfillment developed, so that men may feel they have a stake in the venture and that only by their efforts can it succeed.—*Jean Charters Graham.*

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

63. Nyman, R. Carter. **Making management negotiation persuasive.** *Advanced Management* 8 (1) January-March, 1943: 23-26.—General managers, plant managers, or foremen negotiating with labor are generally technical people, accustomed to issuing orders instead of "selling." Their inability to persuade is the underlying reason that collective bargaining frequently becomes only acrimonious bickering. The achievement of clear understanding and persuasive education are complicated by presentation of the employee's case through a worker representative, since the employer must then get the employee's views secondhand. The same, in reverse procedure, is true of the employees. If management wants employees to get the same information it gives to the union organizer it should give it directly to the employees, or to the union organ-

izer and employees together. Management must take as a starting point the attitude, understanding, and interests of the workers. Labor leaders and employers must realize that employees do not want to fight management, nor merely to work *for* it, but to work *with* it. Assuming that (1) management knows the issues and facts but realizes that it may not know the whole situation, (2) that the issues have been analyzed and evaluated from the employees' point of view as well as from the employer's, and (3) management understands the attitudes and interests of the employees and is prepared to approach the problem from their point of view, certain principles must be followed to assure a settlement of the situation by means of "persuasive education." First, management must convince the employees that the approach will be friendly and factual, and that issues will be dealt with judicially. Second, the process of negotiation must be organized and given structure. Third, consideration of the issues must converge to clarify the fundamental problems. Fourth, the discussion must be adapted to the methods of the employees and their representatives. Fifth, mere "smart" trading must be ruled out. Finally, the preliminary plans and proposed solutions must be adjusted to the situation as it develops. While the process of persuasive education requires observance of these principles, it consists essentially of giving and getting the facts; examining, explaining and interpreting these facts in order to bring about realistic mutual understanding of the problems or needs; and working out a solution which can be voluntarily accepted by both management and labor. Persuasive education is a method which management can employ effectively to gain the wholehearted support of labor and to assure that solutions of labor relations problems adequately take into account the viewpoints and interests of labor.—Charles F. Parker, Jr.

SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

64. Burns, James B. **Improving employee morale.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (6) February, 1943: 13-17.—In an effort to determine the causes for the high rate of turnover in the federal service, the Civil Service Commission recently established a system of exit interviews. The exit interview aims to discover the source of the employee's dissatisfaction and to see what can be done to keep needed workers in the service. Five general categories are included in the interview form, the first of which deals generally with environment. Housing, transportation, recreational and social facilities, homesickness, living costs, and location of the job are among the factors listed for consideration, and all of these items are of great importance in war-time Washington. The second group of questions in the exit interview deals with the relations of employees

to other employees and to supervisors. Automatic salary-increase regulations, appeal boards for efficiency rating grievances, the establishment of unionism throughout the government service, and the elimination of unnecessary paper work all serve to remove factors which create poor morale. The third major section in the exit interview deals with the job itself—such items as physical conditions of the work, excessive or insufficient work, and suitability of work to ability. Finally, personal matters, such as family relationships and health, are covered. Analysis of these factors will go a long way toward the improvement of morale, but the most important way is through unionism. Unionism in the government service is valuable and desirable because it affords a two-way communication between supervisors and the working force.—Charles H. Bentley.

65. Hanson, Arthur Stedry. **Retirement plans for small cities.** *Public Management* 25 (2) February, 1943: 37-41.—A sound retirement system can be created for a small city. If the plan is to meet the particular needs of the city certain important requirements generally will apply. Among these are: no guarantee of minimum benefit; a definite limit on retirements for disability; no separation benefits greater than the employee's money plus interest; employee contributions of not less than 3 per cent; special consideration in the administration of the system as it concerns the determination of disability; and the limiting of investment of assets to high-quality federal, state, and municipal obligations. A state-wide system in which cities and other political subdivisions of the state can participate is more satisfactory if it can be obtained. By providing a broader system in which many cities participate, certain advantages can be gained such as greater diversity of investments, lower expense of administration per employee, greater variety of benefits, better supervision, and more satisfactory legislative protection. The first step in setting up a state-wide plan is an analysis of the state legislation and a summary of general conditions in the various cities of the state. This can be done by one city, by a group of cities, or through the state municipal league. If the results appear to indicate that a state-wide system of some type would be satisfactory, the interested group can obtain specific data on the cities to be included and attempt to evolve a system which would meet the needs of each. The actuarial soundness of the desired provisions and estimates of costs to the various cities should be determined. A final plan embodying the provisions best suited to the needs of the cities should then be prepared and presented to the legislature. The system probably should provide, originally at least, for voluntary participation by the cities interested in the plan.—G. M. Morris.

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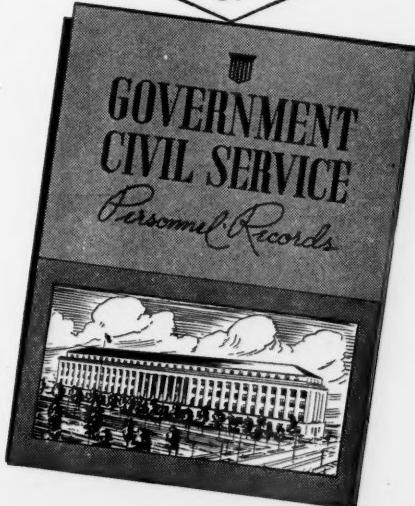
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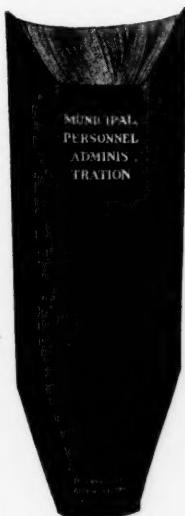
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